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**THE EFFECTS OF EXPLICIT AND IMPLICIT PHONETIC AND
PHONOLOGICAL INSTRUCTION ON THE INTELLIGIBILITY AND
COMPREHENSIBILITY: A STUDY OF TEACHING ENGLISH
PRONUNCIATION IN THE PAKISTANI CONTEXT**



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Abstrak

Bahasa Inggeris telah merentasi sempadan negara-negara barat dan memasuki negara-negara lain sebagai bahasa antarabangsa tetapi berjuta-juta penutur Bahasa Inggeris sebagai bahasa kedua menghadapi masalah disebabkan oleh faktor tidak kenal pasti (unintelligibility) dan tidak dapat difahami (incomprehensibility). Hal ini berlaku adalah disebabkan masalah ekzistas global mahupun tempatan kerana meminggirkan sistem pembelajaran dan sebutan bahasa tersebut. Menurut kajian yang dijalankan dalam konteks negara Pakistan, penggunaan Bahasa Inggeris di dalam komunikasi harian adalah sangat berkurangan walaupun bagi golongan yang berpendidikan tinggi. Tujuan kajian ini adalah untuk mengkaji sama ada arahan fonetik yang jelas mengatasi arahan tersirat. Dua kumpulan eksperimen dipilih secara rawak di mana setiap kumpulan terdiri daripada 17 subjek. Terdapat dua pembolehubah bebas (arahan fonetik jelas dan tersirat) dan dua pembolehubah bersandar (kecerdasan dan kepekaan). Setiap kumpulan dirawat dengan rawatan khas dan diuji dengan cara pra diuji dan pasca ujian. Oleh itu, tahap kecerdasan diukur oleh dua orang pakar dari sebuah universiti di Pakistan menggunakan skala Likert sembilan mata manakala kepekaan dinilai melalui ujian mendengar IELTS. Data tersebut dikira menggunakan ujian Sampel Bebas dan ujian Sampel Pasangan untuk melihat perbezaan antara cara kedua-dua kumpulan. Dapatan antara kumpulan menunjukkan perbezaan antara Kumpulan A dan B untuk kecerdasan dan kepekaan yang mana perbezaan adalah signifikan secara statistic. Secara kesimpulannya, keputusan menunjukkan bahawa kumpulan yang menerima pengajaran fonetik dan fonologi yang jelas menunjukkan prestasi yang lebih baik daripada kumpulan yang dirawat dengan arahan secara tersirat. Selain itu, tinjauan soal selidik telah dijalankan untuk melihat pendapat subjek mengenai kajian di mana kebanyakan mereka bersetuju bahawa mereka tidak menyedari ciri bunyi sebelum menjalankan kajian dan pengajaran sebutan harus dimasukkan dalam kandungan dan penilaian matapelajaran di sekolah di Pakistan. Kajian semasa mungkin menjadi tonggak dalam menyelesaikan masalah kecerdasan dan pemahaman dalam konteks Pakistan yang mempromosikan sebutan pengajaran melalui arahan yang jelas.

Kata kunci: Arahan yang jelas, Arahan tersirat, Kecerdasan, Kepekaan

Abstract

English language has been established as World Englishes but millions of non-native English speakers face problems due to unintelligibility and incomprehensibility. This problem exists globally and locally, which is partly because of the marginalisation of the teaching of pronunciation. The current study was carried out in the Pakistani context where deficiency in English language is rampant. The purpose of the study was to investigate whether explicit phonetic and phonological instructions are more effective than the implicit instruction. Two experimental groups were randomly selected in which each group consisted of 17 subjects. There were two independent variables (the explicit phonetic and phonological instructions versus the implicit instruction) and two dependent variables (intelligibility and comprehensibility). Each group was treated with a special treatment and was pretested and posttested. Intelligibility was measured by two experts from a Pakistani university using a 9-point Likert scale, while comprehensibility was evaluated through the IELTS listening test. The data was computed using an Independent Samples t-test and a Paired Samples test to see the difference between the means of both groups. The inter groups means difference between Group A and B for intelligibility and comprehensibility was statistically significant. The results indicate that the group who received the explicit phonetic and phonological instructions outperformed the group who was treated with the implicit instruction. Furthermore, a questionnaire survey was conducted to explore the opinions of the subjects about the study in which most of them agreed that they were unaware of sounds and prosodic features before the treatment. They also believe that the teaching of pronunciation should be included in the content and assessment at school in Pakistan. The current study may be a milestone in solving the intelligibility and comprehensibility problems in the Pakistani context promoting teaching pronunciation via explicit instruction.

Keywords: Explicit instruction, Implicit instruction, Intelligibility, Comprehensibility

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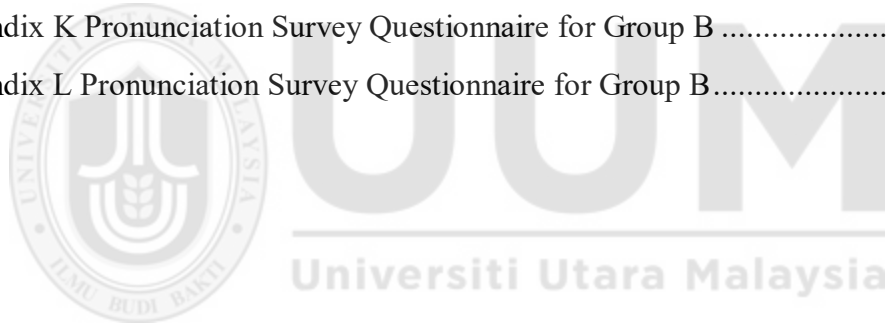
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter includes the background of the study, accompanied with the purpose of the study, statement of the problem, research questions, theoretical background, significance of the study, delimitation of the study and the definitions of the terms.

1.1 Background of the Study

1.1.1 Intelligibility and Comprehensibility Issues in the Global Context

In any language, communication is carried out through different skills but the most common and easiest source of communication depends upon speaking and listening skills, which are the most neglected areas in formal education in many parts of the world (Derwing & Munro 2005; Derwing & Rossiter (2002; Sohrab, 1996). There are many factors which are responsible for the negligence of these skills. For example, lack of knowledge of pronunciation in ELT teachers, its exclusion from summative assessment, lack of material for teaching pronunciation and use of traditional methods in ELT classroom. It was claimed that the inability to pronounce words correctly is a cognitive rather than physical in conceptualizing the raw sound (Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011). As incorrect pronunciation leads to the misconception about a phenomenon that may decrease or increase intelligibility (speaker's ability to be understood) and comprehensibility (listener's ability to give the meaning to the words) due to the correct or incorrect pronunciation (Majoka, Khan & Khan, 2016). Teaching of pronunciation may increase intelligibility and comprehensibility but it is sidelined with the assumption

that pronunciation can be promoted through all other academic activities whether they are associated with language teaching or with the teaching of other subjects. In the linguistic imperialism that was promoted by English native countries in their colonies, the target in teaching pronunciation was native-like pronunciation. But, presently, intelligibility (ability of a speaker to be understood) and comprehensibility (ability of a listener to understand the meaning of words) are given growing attention rather than accentedness.

Thus, the dependent variables of this study, i.e., intelligibility and comprehensibility are the most desired goals in the second language acquisition due to their importance in practical life because a native-like pronunciation is unattainable due to some factors i.e., age, context and mother tongue effects, for example (Chen, 2016; Hayati, 2010; Loewen, 2014). Sometimes intelligibility becomes a confusing idea when one looks at its various definitions. Some authors consider intelligibility as the ability of both the speaker and the listener. Smith and Nelson (1985) express that intelligibility does not depend upon the listener but it is a mutual interaction between a listener and a speaker. When it is taken as the ability of a speaker, it refers to the quality of utterance to be understood (Saito, 2011). In contrast, some writers (e.g., Derwing, 2010) see it as a listener's ability of recognizing words while comprehensibility denotes knowing the meaning of words. Comprehensibility is an assessment of how accurately of an individual's pronunciation is to be comprehended. It can be said that "accent is difference, comprehensibility is effort, and intelligibility is actual understanding" (Derwing, 2010, p. 29).

In this study, intelligibility was defined as an attribution related to a speaker and how much a speaker is understandable to a listener, while comprehensibility was restricted to

the ability of a listener to give meaning to the listened words (Alatis, 1993; Gilakjani, 2012; Kenworthy, 1988; Nelson, 1993; Saito, 2011; Whitehill, Gotzke, & Hodge, 2012).

Native-like pronunciation is no more a goal in the second language learning or acquisition but intelligibility is the most desired feature of pronunciation in speech (Field, 2005; Keeley, 2016). Wang (2013) contends that the discussions on intelligibility and comprehensibility issues in English have become a burning topic among linguists. Crystal (2003) argues that the linguistic imperialism of English language has not been only strengthened by the native English countries in their colonies but it has also expanded its boundaries to the countries which were not the English colonies. The hegemony of English has proven English as an international language and developed as World Englishes. Thus, the usage of English globally has become a natural phenomenon. The manner of speaking by a speaker (intelligibility) and the extent of understanding by a listener (comprehensibility) have been given growing attention (Chatterjee & Jain, 2011). The speakers of the different cultures face problems in intelligibility and comprehensibility in their own contexts as well as in the native English countries. Cunningham (1990) points out that Kindergarten's first grade students faced intelligibility and comprehensibility problems at Midwest suburban metropolitan area in USA. Saito (2007; 2011) conducted two experiments to resolve the issues regarding the eight segmentals /æ, f, v, μ, ð, w, l, ô/ which reduced the adult Japanese speakers' intelligibility and comprehensibility living in USA. Papachristou (2011) investigated the problems related to the Greek and English vowels and tried to improve intelligibility of the Thessaloniki monolingual speakers of Standard Modern Greek. Koike (2014), too, apprehends intelligibility problems and designs syllabus to enhance intelligibility of

English language in Japan. In Iran, Rahbar, Jahandar, and Khodabandehlou (2013) probed the problems regarding comprehensibility among university level students who were unable to communicate properly. They suggested that suprasegmental instruction may increase comprehensibility. Gordon, Darcy, and Ewert (2013) investigated comprehensibility problems among university students in USA. They conducted an experiment to find out these problems. Wang (2013) claims that the acceptable intelligibility and comprehensibility are the targets in language learning and communicative approach to language teaching can be helpful in achieving objectives in Taiwan. Likewise, Hassan (2014) in Sudan, Yalun (2002) in Thailand and Bardakçi (2015) in Turkey pointed out the intelligibility and comprehensibility problems in their respective contexts. Thus, the intelligibility and comprehensibility problems are related to a specific area but these problems exist globally.

1.1.2 Intelligibility and Comprehensibility Issues in the Pakistani Context

The status of intelligibility and comprehensibility in Pakistan is not different from the above stated phenomena. As Kachru (1998) indicates, Pakistan has been a colony of British Empire and is one of the 70 countries which are included in the outer circle of the English empire. Therefore, in Pakistan, (Rahman, 2010) English language is not only taught as a compulsory subject from the first grade to graduation but also it is the language of politics, judiciary, education and army. The problems regarding intelligible and comprehensible speech have always been a hindrance in the target communication. Thus, Sheikh (2012) justifies the replacement of /ɪ/, /e/, /ə/ and /e/ with /ɪ/, /æ/, /i/ and /e:/ respectively in Pakistani English (PE) because Sheikh (2012) thinks that the said

replacement is not a hindrance in intelligibility of Pakistani ESL speakers. However, Malghani and Bano (2014) disagree and argue that this replacement causes unintelligible and incomprehensible speech. Pakistan is a multilingual country with 79 languages along with many dialects while Bangali, Punjabi, Pashto, Sindhi, Urdu, Siraiki and Balochi are the main languages (Rahman, 2003; 2010). Malghani and Bano (2014) indicate that these mother tongues (L1) affect the acquisition of second language (L2) as the differences of articulation between L1 and L2 cause unintelligibility and incomprehensibility problems. They provide evidence through their studies that Pakistani participants of three different mother tongues (Balochi, Brahvi and Lasi) faced intelligibility and comprehensibility problems due to L1 effects. Rehman, Khan and Bukhari (2012) support that Pakistani Pashto speakers encounter problems in the pronunciation of five English consonants /f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, and /z/, which is due to mother tongue effects. Khan and Qadir (2012) expand their investigation on Pakistani Pahari speakers who also have dissimilarity problems between four English consonants /θ/, /ð/, /w/, and /z/ and Pahari consonants. The stated above studies have provided evidences that the Pakistani English speakers are unintelligible and incomprehensible due to the discrepancies of sounds between L1 and L2.

Likewise, the problem regarding intelligibility and comprehensibility is an international phenomenon. Globally, many studies have been conducted by different researchers (Bardakçi, 2015; Cunningham, 1990; Gordon et al., 2013; Hassan, 2014; Khanbeiki, 2015; Koike, 2014; Papachristou, 2011; Rahbar et al., 2013; Saito, 2007, 2011; Wang, 2013; Yalun, 2002) to solve these problems. In Pakistan, some studies point out intelligibility and comprehensibility problems but there is no study which focuses on

solving these problems. The focus of the current study is to find out which medium of instruction is more effective in solving intelligibility and comprehensibility issues in the Pakistani context.

1.1.3 Pronunciation Problems in the Global Context

The connection between intelligibility and correct pronunciation is a seminal concept in the second language acquisition because pronunciation is a way in which some particular words are articulated and intelligibility is a manner a speaker makes his speech understandable (Chatterjee & Jain, 2011). So, it is necessary for a speaker to have knowledge of the ways that may lead how to pronounce words accurately. The incorrect pronunciation leads to the intelligibility and comprehensibility problems.

Globally, as Munro (2008) indicates, non-native English speakers face these problems due to inefficiency in communication skills, L1 effects, contextual differences, and environmental issues. Bardakçi (2015) points out that L1 affects English pronunciation. For example, Turkish English speakers mispronounce the sounds /ə/, /θ/, /ŋ/, /a/, and /æ/ which is due to the absence of the corresponding sounds in Turkish. The phonological difference between syllable-timed Turkish and stress-timed English makes pronunciation problems more complicated. Kanoksilapatham (2014) adds that the same stress-timed syllables are a hindrance in the correct pronunciation for Thai English speakers. She claims that the mother tongue, age, learners' attitude, dispositions, learning context, ELT materials, lack of resources, and insufficiency in English phonetics knowledge are reasons for pronunciation problems in Thailand. In China, stress is the main problematic area in pronunciation of English language. As Bian (2013) puts, Chinese English learners

face problems in stress due to intrinsic reasons, (mother tongue transfer effects to L2) and extrinsic reasons (marginalization of suprasegmental instruction, unqualified English teachers, uninterested English learners and lack of opportunities for practice of pronunciation). Ahmad (2011) explains that, in Saudi Arabia, some consonant sounds like /p/, /d/, /v/, /t/, /ʃ/, and /ŋ/ are difficult to pronounce for Arab speakers of English because these sounds have no counterparts in Arabic. The Indian English speakers (Ghatage, 2013) who are similar to Pakistani speakers, to some extent, are not exempted from pronunciation issues. They mispronounce English words due to L1 effects.

It can be seen that these problems differ in different contexts. As Derwing and Munro (2005) point out, a native context refers to a situation where English is used as a second language by multinational immigrants, and in a non-native context where English occupies the status of an international language. In the former context, unawareness of accentedness and unintelligibility face some social problems: language-based discrimination, racial prejudices and miscommunication. In the latter context where English is used as an International language (EIL), non-native speakers are not restricted to learn the native speakers' norms (NS). They use English as a lingua franca for their mutual communication, adapt the accentedness and intelligibility that is suitable according to their needs. So, in the Pakistani context, English will be dealt with as an international language in which intelligibility will be focused instead of native-like accentedness because of linguists' consensus on the fact that communication can be attained via intelligible and comprehensible speech (Gimson, 2008).

Derwing and Munro (2005) further argue that English language pronunciation has been marginalised internationally. Few studies conclude that the focus on teaching of

pronunciation has been overlooked in the teaching materials and pedagogy. It has even been overlooked by writers, stakeholders and institutions. Derwing and Rossiter (2002) reported that 67% English language teachers were investigated in Canadian schools and there was not a single teacher who was trained in pronunciation. Such a condition exists not only in North America but also in Britain (Burgess & Spencer, 2000) and in Australia (MacDonald, 2002). MacDonald (2002) exposes that the English language teachers in Australia were reluctant and unconfident to teach pronunciation because they themselves were not trained in pronunciation. They had no appropriate materials and the teaching of pronunciation was not included in the curriculum. There was no adequate assessment system to evaluate pronunciation nor incentives were provided to English language teachers who wanted to improve their skills to teach pronunciation. Burgess and Spencer (2000) present the results of their survey showing that only 8 out of 100 ESL learners received pronunciation instruction in their ESL program. In New Zealand, Couper (2003) indicates that the teaching of pronunciation had not been ignored totally but all the features of phonology had not been taught explicitly and systematically and “it had generally been treated incidentally as an integrated part of the syllabus” (p. 53). Kelly (2006), Nikolov et al. (2007), Benzies (2013), Baker (2011), Gilakjani (2012) and Reed and Michaud (2011) also mention the negligence regarding teaching pronunciation. They indicate that all the language skills have been investigated vastly but the pronunciation aspect is still unexplored. It has attracted very little attention compared to the other language skills and the academic language knowledge. Kelly (2006) expresses that pronunciation is neglected due to two reasons: it tends to be neglected when it is not neglected and when it is neglected it tends to be reactive in creating some problems in the

classroom. When it tends to be neglected, it is not neglected due to lack of interest but due to reluctance how to teach pronunciation because English language teachers are not trained properly to teach pronunciation. When teachers are interested in teaching pronunciation, they are not able to teach due to lack of knowledge and skill in teaching pronunciation. So, it is neglected inspite of the desire for its teaching. It tends to be reactive to the errors done by students in the classroom because the correction of these errors needs some reactive arrangements by language teachers who mostly focus on the grammatical and the lexical issues instead of pronunciation. Thus, the results of the negligence leads to the reactions: i.e., skepticism, reluctance and the feel of shame while speaking. These hindrances can potentially be dealt through sufficient phonetic training and well-planned strategies to cope with the errors related to the pronunciation of the segmental and suprasegmental features arising in the classroom. Derwing, Munro and Wiebe (1998), Cunningham (1990), Saito (2011) and Papachristou (2011) conducted experiments on the effectiveness of the implicit and the explicit instruction. The results of these studies supported the notion that the explicit instruction of segments and suprasegments led to positive effects to remove the above discussed hindrances. Likewise, the status of teaching pronunciation in Finland is not different from the above stated countries. Lintunen (2004) depicts the real picture of the pronunciation in Finland and reveals that the advanced learners studying at a university level made errors in pronouncing the phoneme because they had not been taught to read even the symbol of sounds (IPA symbols). In Finland, the EFL teachers are reluctant to pay attention to pronunciation and they prefer to focus on reading and writing instead. Mehrabi and Mousavinia (2013) indicate that the same condition of teaching of pronunciation exists in

Iran. In language classrooms, little attention is paid to teaching pronunciation. English teachers face many challenges in the teaching of pronunciation, particularly with regard to profound phonetic knowledge, suitable materials and sound articulation-teaching techniques. Keeping in mind the foregoing discussion, it can be concluded that teaching of pronunciation is ignored globally. Stakeholders, institutions, teacher trainers and English teaching writers still have not embarked upon the enterprise for the betterment of English pronunciation and Pakistan cannot be detached from this international phenomenon.

1.1.4 Pronunciation Problems in the Pakistani Context

Some researchers such as Rahman (2005), Hashmi (2012) and Sheikh (2012) consider the Pakistani English (PE) as a different entity from British English and American English. Sheikh (2012) maintains that Pakistani English has got a distinguished status among the varieties of English through academic, administrative, social, political and commercial practices over a long period with features of re-structuring of native norms into non-native norms in sounds and words to meet their local needs. Thus, Sheikh (2012) argues Pakistan has maintained its non-native variety of Standard English of which most of the phonemes resemble the British English or Received Pronunciation (RP) that is the model for Pakistani English learners. Rahman (2014) supports the above stated idea to some extent that PE is an independent variety of English that can be differentiated from the Indian English because of some basic concepts and values that come from Islamic culture, Persian, Arabic and the local languages. Nevertheless, as the cultures and local linguistic norms interference increases, the intelligibility and acceptability decrease

because every culture has specific linguistic features to differentiate it from other cultures. However, intelligibility and acceptability can be increased through teaching of pronunciation. Rahman (2005) extends that the variety of spoken and written English is called Pakistani English as a non-native English with its rules and regulations but very close to the British English (BE) or RP. He (2005) calls PE as an acrolectal, that is standard variety of PE and it is considered closest to BE used by the educated Pakistani English speakers, as a mesolect used by Pakistani masses and as a basilect which is the very low variety of PE that is too diverged from the standard British English norms and the least intelligible and acceptable variety in pronunciation, accent, grammar and vocabulary. Rahman (2014) also notes that non-acceptability of these sub-varieties have three phases: in the first phase, the local variety of English is not recognized, in the second phase it is recognized as a sub-standard, while in the third phase, it is accepted as a norm. Pakistani English has entered the second phase.

However, the writers such as Prator (as cited in Rahman, 2014) think Pakistani English is the most unintelligible variety of English in the world. Hussain (as cited in Hashmi, 2012) argues that Pakistani English (PE) cannot be called as a standardized variety of English and is not it is not acceptable any way. Hussain (2004) states:

What we say here is that if Pakistani English, Paklish if you will—wayward tenses, missing articles, uncertain conditionals, altered meanings, quirky interrogatives, spelling inconsistencies, spasmodic prepositions, deviant phonology, random localisms, hilarious idioms, hybrid formations and all – if this variant is more readily acceptable in this society than, say, the dialects of English spoken in London or Washington, then it is time to take it seriously as a viable language system in itself. It should not be dismissed as an aberrant, debased form of the ‘real’ language as defined by one or two dialects spoken in some other country (p. 7095).

Hussain (2004) seems here to be too ambitious apparently because some other famous writers such as Mansoor (2009), Sheikh (2012), and Rahman (2014) admit PE as a separate variety of English with the fact that it has many differences from British English and American English. Pakistan is a multilingual country with 79 languages, so, Pakistani English has the effects of these languages in its structures, as Hashmi (2012) cites:

But is there any such thing that can be called a system of sounds governed by certain rules or is there any unifying law regarding the spellings of words, or can languages be studied as science or a living force growing and evolving, is a matter of little or no concern for the average or even good speakers/users or teachers of English. English is therefore, learnt as it is variedly heard by a great variety of people or how an individual can make out the pronunciation of a word by seeing the spellings or by mastering certain rules or by learning literary text etc. Thus, the English which is spoken is quite different from American, British or Indian variety; therefore, it can easily be termed as Pakistani English (PE) (p. 7095).

Although PE is considered a separate variety of English from other Englishes, yet the question arises whether PE fulfills the national and international needs. Regarding national needs, the analysis done by Rahman (2014) draws a vivid picture of Pakistani English speakers' case. The federal and provincial government higher education institutions and elite's schools such as Aitchison College Lahore, Burn Hall Abbottabad, Grammar School Karachi and all convents and public schools use English as their medium of instruction and expect their students to use English formally and informally through their study and colloquial conversation. He puts that the English used by these institutes is acrolectal form of Pakistani English and there are few people who communicate through this form. Rahman (2005) discusses that the 2% educated people

can communicate in English. This ratio includes the people who use mesolactal and basilectal forms of English too. It indicates that the percentage of Anglicized English and acrolectal users is more less than the above stated educated persons.

In the Pakistani context, the condition of pronunciation is severe where intelligibility and comprehensibility in English language is a great problem even for the educated English speakers. Hussain (as cited in Hashmi, 2012) states his concerns that the Pakistani users of English who use English with missing articles, changed meaning, incorrect phonological deviations, unintelligible utterances, unusual structures and improper interrogations.

Jabeen (2013) claims that after the study of English as a subject for 16 years, students are deficient in oral communication. Institutions, stakeholders, trainers, teachers and educators are unaware of the need of teaching pronunciation at any level. As it has been previously explained, English is used as EIL and ESL with different perspectives. In the English as an International Language context, the native English norms are not required but some native norms are adopted that can make communication easier in an international context with different effects by the different mother tongues. Whereas in the native English contexts, the native norms are required because without these norms the communication gap with racial prejudices occurs such as use of labels, dehumanizing allegories, or prejudiced humor, variations in sentence structure and subtle word choices explicitly and implicitly (Ruscher, 2017). In Pakistan, Bughio (2014) states that English is used as an international language: a lingua franca to meet domestic, official, social and commercial needs. Using English worldwide, some native norms (lexical stress, prosody, phonemic segments, accentedness) are needed, but all native norms are not required to

reach the target intelligibility. Normally, Pakistani English speakers cannot understand a native speaker and cannot be understood by him, but in the EIL context, this competence is not required as mentioned earlier.

Khan (2011) sheds light on pronunciation problems faced by Pakistani speakers. He (2011) mentions six hurdles to pronounce the English words correctly: first problem is unfamiliarity with the English speech-sounds because the Pakistani English learners do not study English phonetic system. Secondly, the sounds of English and Urdu languages are different on the basis of speech organs and Pakistani speakers retort them by mixing them together. For example, the sounds /ص/، /س/، /ث/ (Ali & Ijaz, 2009, p. 16) has anyone corresponding sound /s/ in English but the stated Urdu sounds are uttered with the different rate of blockade of air between teeth. Consequently, Pakistani speakers miss the hissing sounds by replacing them with /ص/، /س/، /ث/ Some other Urdu sounds: /ظ/، /ز/، /ض/ that can be corresponding with English Phoneme /z/ but all these Urdu are spoken by different places and manners of articulations.

Thirdly, the speakers are unaware of phonology for making connections in speech. Thus, they connect sounds improperly. Fourthly, the sounds of English words are different from their spellings, while in Urdu, mostly sounds are according to spellings. This fact misleads the Urdu speakers in speaking of English. Another problem faced is due to different sounds represented by one letter. For example, “ch” produces three sounds as /tʃ/, /t/, and /k/. Similarly, “c” produces two sounds as /s/ and /k/. The sixth problem exists in the suprasegmental features of English language where stress and intonation are not placed according to the native English norms. Jabeen (2013) observes that most of the college level students in Pakistan cannot communicate in English albeit they have been

taught English from primary level to graduation. The main factor behind this fact is the poor system of English language teaching where, particularly, speaking and listening are ignored. Listening is assumed to be developed via speaking practice which is performed incorrectly overlooking the pronunciation rules.

Furthermore, the English learners are continuously increasing. Approximately, every university in Pakistan is running English courses whether they are intermediate level or graduate level but the target competence has not been achieved (Farhat & Dzakiria, 2017; Gul & Aziz, 2015). Majority of the English learners are inefficient in pronunciation (Akram & Qureshi, 2012; Husain, Qureshi & Abbasi, 2017; Majoka, Khan, & Khan, 2016). There is a vast network of institutions, academies, schools and colleges which are so-called English medium to convince people for providing the taste of English communication skills. Parents, patrons, guardians and learners are investing lot of their earnings on English language learning. Macaulay (as cited in Sharp, 1920) was right in his proclaim that the British will not spend money (stipends were given to the students of Arabic and Sanskrit) to teach Sanskrit and Arabic to the Indian natives merely for getting sympathy while they are ready to pay for learning of English. So, they will teach English to native Indians and will earn money instead of spending money. It is true that Indians have paid and they are paying much for learning English but inadequately not focusing on learning pronunciation.

In Pakistan, sometimes, the echo of learner centered approach is resonated in some of the ELT programs run by the NGOs. For example, in the menu of Punjab Education and English Language Initiative (PEELI) (British Council, 2014), there is mention of learner-centered approach for ELT students but when this approach is applied, it adopts the shape

of experimental controlled settings where learners are only the subjects of a study as the objection was raised in Mumby's communicative needs processor (CNP) (McDonough, 1984) . These NGOs are trying to make English learners intelligible and comprehensible but the results are not according to the expectations. In learner centered approach learners are free for the activities for their learning and this freedom is also provided in metacognitive/metalinguistic approach where learners are self-responsible for their learning or language learning. The explicit instruction (independent variable of the study) includes metacognitive activities for learning of pronunciation.

It has been observed that Pakistani ELT learners are not actively involved in language class activities because they do not speak while the teacher is active who delivers lectures (lectures are not delivered in English), speaks loud, initiates and finishes the talk (Chandio, Khan, & Samiullah, 2013; Nawab, 2012). The learner only listens to his/her teacher, takes notes and copies the written words by the teacher. In some ELT programs run by NGOs, as cited above, learners have no autonomy and they do not move and work with their own intention or willing but they are driven by someone else to the undesired destination.

Mostly, Pakistani classroom is dominated by the traditional methods of teaching where from grade 1 to graduation, activities are learnt by heart, theories are crammed instead of being applied, stories are parroted instead of being understood, rules are reminded but are not used and strictly assessed with no fault of a nuance. English is studied as a subject not as a language where a learner gets maximum knowledge about a language but does not use the language (Ahmad & Rao, 2012). Similarly, learners are incompetent in pronunciation. Currently, (Seminar on quality of education on April, 28, 2015), the

secretary education of Punjab tells in his speech that he taught English rules to the students of the third grade. He told that once when he was in that class, a PhD scholar from the Leads University UK arrived there for data collection. He was very fluent in his spoken English. The secretary of education asked the students to ask the PhD scholar some questions regarding English rules he has taught. The questions were asked and the PhD scholar was unable to answer these questions. Thus, the secretary and the class clapped for the humiliation of that PhD scholar. This incidence indicates that knowledge about language is very important in Pakistan whereas communication skills are considered as a trivial matter.

Chandio et al. (2013) have expressed their concerns on the bad condition of creativity in speaking of English Pakistan. They observe that thinking is also prohibited for ELT learners with no freedom of expression while studies provide evidence of a linkage between language and thinking. The learner is scared of speaking or writing by himself. He studies English from class 1 to graduation but with the condition that he can use words, phrases and statements which are used by the writers or elders, not his own. Therefore, he crams the vocabulary and parrots the sentences of written books. Sometimes, if he tries to use his own language, he is discouraged by his teachers and listeners. He collects knowledge and memorizes it but does not understand, and copies it in assessment. Therefore, Pakistani learner does not produce and create new things while the speaking and listening abilities do not depend on the crammed structures.

Lack of confidence is also a major challenge that a Pakistani learner faces due to incompetence in communication skills. He is a dependent consumer who is forced to achieve some objectives or to be tamed as a peculiar member of society. He is deprived

of learner autonomy (a metacognitive approach in which a learner is self-responsible for his learning and currently it is used in language learning too) and resources. Now, there is a new shift to language learning, i.e., learner autonomy has been promoted in an ELT class room to make a learner responsible, self-controller, self-manager, self-conscious, independent, resourceful with learner-centeredness of his own learning where he himself decides how and what to learn effectively (Bocanegra & Haidl, 1999). This shift tends to make learners confident because they have to think how to learn a language and as a result this thinking habit improves their communication skills. According to Chomskyan Nativism and Piaget's cognitive theory, human mind is a source of language rules and structures, so, by thinking, learners can find out new methods to construct structures explicitly (Geeslin & Long, 2014; King, 2013).

The struggles by the government and by many of the NGOs, i.e., PEELI, Pakistan English Language Teachers Association (PELTA), English for Teaching: Teaching for English (ETTE), The Society of Pakistan English Language Teachers (SPELT) to anglicize the public institutions still seems a strategy to ghettoize the middle class and poor students on one side while on the other side it strengthens the monopoly of the elite that is not educated in the public institutions but in the private English medium institutions occupies a high status at national and international level (Alvi, 2010; British Council, 2014; Coleman, 2010; OECD, 2015; Rahman, 2010;). The struggles to anglicize the institutions could not make the position of English pronunciation better.

The elite class has linguistic hegemony (through competence in English) in Pakistan over the majority and it has access to get education abroad. This elite class is in small number (less than 1%) out of the Pakistani educated people (Rahman, 2005). This elite class is in

minority that cannot be counted as a sufficient part of the whole population of the country. Thus, the elite which is in fact .04% out of the whole population of country cannot fill the gap of communication in English while the majority face the problems regarding intelligibility and comprehensibility.

It has been proven that overall teaching of English pronunciation has been marginalized since its footing in the sub-continent. Therefore, in Pakistan too, teaching of pronunciation could not grab a good attention and the Pakistani educated class is deficient in oral skills. The studies of Saito (2007; 2011), Papachristou (2011), Rahbar et al. (2013), and Gordon et al. (2013) provide the evidence that teaching pronunciation explicitly or implicitly may play an effective role in promotion of acceptable intelligibility and comprehensibility in their respective contexts. The current study aims to investigate the effects of the explicit instruction compared to the implicit instruction on teaching English pronunciation in the Pakistani context.

1.1.5 The Reasons for the Pronunciation Problems in Pakistan

Some reasons, which are responsible for the pronunciation problems in Pakistan, are discussed in the following:

1.1.5.1 Segmental and Suprasegmental Difference between Pakistani Languages and English

Like other countries in the world, as some writers point out such as Bardakçi (2015) in Turkey, Kanoksilapatham (2014) in Thailand, Bian (2013) in China, Ahmad (2011) in Saudi Arabia and Ghatage (2013) in India that L1 transfer effects creates problems in English pronunciation. Pakistan too has mother tongue transfer effects problems in

English language production and pronunciation. This problem occurs due to some phonetic and phonological difference between English and the local Pakistani languages. Urdu enjoys the status of national language of Pakistan. It is spoken and understood not only over the country but also is it is being used as a tool for communication by 100 million people across countries (Hussain, n.d). Urdu speakers happen to mispronounce the English words because of discrepancy of segmental and suprasegmental features between Urdu and English. Kachru (2003) claims that Urdu possesses 37 consonants and ten vowels sound while standard English has twenty vowel sounds and twenty-four consonant sounds (Khan, 1997). Some phonemes in Urdu such as /ص س ث/ (Ali & Ijaz, 2009, p. 16) have only one counterpart sound /s/ in English but these Urdu phonemes are articulated with different rates of obstruction of air in the oral cavity. Thus, the hissing sounds are missed from Pakistani speakers by replacing them with /ص، س، ث/. However, the sound /س/ can be counterpart of the sound /s/ to a great extent. The same is case with some other Urdu phonemes: /ظ، ذ، ز، ض/ that can be matched with the English Phoneme /z/ while all these Urdu phonemes are articulated at different places and in different manners of articulations. These are some examples of segmental difference between Urdu and English. However, in Pakistan, seven major languages Bangali, Punjabi, Pashto, Sindhi, Urdu, Siraiki, Balochi and 79 minor languages are used (Rahman, 2003). All of them have different phonetical and phonological systems. Rehman et al. (2012) explains that Pakistani Pashto speaker produce unintelligible speech pronouncing the English consonant sounds, i.e., /f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, and /ʒ/ because, in Pashto, there is no existence of such kind of sounds. Khan and Qadir (2012) too expose that the Pakistani Pahari speakers

face similar problems in pronouncing the sounds /θ/, /ð/, /w/, and /z/ due to L1 transfer effects.

Malghani and Bano (2014) conduct research to see the L1 transfer effects of Pakistani Balochi, Brahvi and Lasi speakers on acquisition of L2. They manipulate the participants of the study with five English words. By the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) the results of the study show that L1 affects the stress of English words. Furthermore, many of the local Pakistani languages including Urdu derive much of their vocabulary from Arabic and Persian. So, the stress and intonation of these languages affect English pronunciation. For example, Alharbi (2009) notes that Arabic words whether they are unstressed or stressed have the same time in pronunciation but English words are syllable time-stressed with loudness of pitch and duration.

Bardakçi (2015), Ahmad (2011) (Ghatage, 2013), Rehman et al. (2012), Khan and Qadir (2012) and Ghulamullah and Hamzah (2017) indicate that there is great correspondence between the letters of Urdu and its sounds because most of the alphabet of Urdu are derived from the most transparent languages (the languages in which there is correspondence between written symbols and spoken language), i.e., Arabic and Sanskrit. Due to this correspondence, Pakistani English speakers are misled and mispronounce English words. For instance, they take the letter “a” representing mostly one sound: /ɑ/ (arm: /ɑ:rm/) because this sound is considered commonly similar to its counterfeit in Urdu “ا” or “آ” while “a” is pronounced in different ways in different contexts such as /æ/ (academic /æk.ə'dem.ɪk/), /eɪ/ (stapler /'steɪ.plə^r/), /ə/ (ahead /ə'hed/), /ɑ/ (glance /glɑns/) and /ɔ/ (war /wɔ^r/ or /wɔr/, ward /wɔd/ or /wɔrd/. Thus, a Pakistani English speaker mispronounces the word “stapler /'steɪ.plə^r/” as a /'stə.plə^r/, “ahead /ə'hed/” as

a /æ'hed/ and “war /wɔːr/” as a war /wɑːr/. The letter “d” usually has two sounds: /d/ and /dj/ (schedule /'ʃed.ju:l/ or /'sked-/ and doll /dɒl/ or /dɑ:l/). In Urdu the counterfeit of ‘d’ is ‘د’ but the sound /dj/ is not correspondent to “د” so the word schedule /'ʃed.ju:l/ is mispronounced as a /'ʃedu:l/ or /'skedu:l/.

The grapheme “s” whose similar sound in Urdu is “س”, is usually pronounced as a /s/ (dose /dəʊs/), /ʒ/ (Asian /'eɪ.ʒən/), /z/ (cause /kɔːz/ or /kɑːz/) and /ʃ/ (sure /ʃʊːr/ or /ʃʊːr/). Here again Pakistani English speakers intermingle the sound /z/ with /s/ and /ʒ/. So, they speak “dose /dəʊs/” as a /dəʊz/ and “Asian /'eɪ.ʒən/” and as a /'eɪ.ʒ n/. The most commonly mispronounced sounds are the sounds of “o” and it has no corresponding with single alphabet of Urdu but like diphthongs of English the combination of letters can be a counterfeit such as ‘او’ But it is pronounced by Urdu speakers as it is pronounced as an alphabet “o /əʊ/ or /oʊ/”. This letter is pronounced with various sounds in different contexts such as a /ɔ:/ (forward /'fɔː.wəd/), /ɑ:/ or /ɒ/ (monsoon /mɒn'su:n/ or /mɑːn-/), /a/ (bow /baʊ/), /ɒ/ (Chaos /'keɪ.ɒs/), /ə/ (colony /'kɒl.ə.ni/ or /'kɑː.lə-/), ʌ (comfort, /'kʌm.fət/ or /-fət/), /ɔ/ (boil /bɔɪl/) and /ɪ/ (women /'wɪmɪn/). So the word “forward” is mispronounced as /'fɑː.wəd/ instead of /'fɔː.wəd/, “monsoon” as /mu:n'su:n/) instead of /mɑːn'sun/, “bow” as /bɒ/, “colony” as /'kɒl.ɔː.ni/ instead of /'kɒl.ə.ni/ and “woman” as /'wɒmɪn/ instead of /'wɪmɪn/. Like the letter “o” and the letter “i” also cannot be matched directly to any letter of Urdu. However, mostly there are four sounds of the letter “i” such as /ɪ/ (African /'æf.rɪ.kən/), ə (April /'eɪ.prəl/), /aɪ/ (incline /ɪn'klaɪn/) and /i:/ (caprice /kə'pri:s/). Here, again the sounds /ɪ, aɪ, and i:/ are interchanged by the Urdu speakers. For example, “caprice” is mistaken as /kə'prais/) and horizon /'hɔːrɪzən/. Similarly, the postalveolar /tʃ/, /dʒ/, the velar /g/ and the dental /θ/ and /ð/ are commonly

mispronounced. Thus, the word “arch” /ɑ:rtʃ/ is pronounced as a /ɑ:rk/ as “archaeological” /ɑ:ki.ə'lədʒi.kəl/, “healthy” is pronounced /hel.ði/ instead of /hel.θi/ and “bourgeois” is pronounced as a /bɔ:ɹ.giəs/ instead of /'bɔ:ʒ.wɑ:/.

The letter “u” too cannot be matched directly with a single letter of Urdu but by the combination of two Urdu vowels “و+ی=ی”. Thus Urdu speakers usually pronounce “u” as a /ʊ/ even when it happens word-initially and word-medially such as “brush” /brʊʃ/ instead of /brʌʃ/, “wound” /waʊnd/ instead of /wu:nd/ and “cure” /kʊr/ instead of /kjʊr/. It occurs with various sounds in different contexts: /ʌ/ (up /ʌp/), /ju/ (bugle /bju:gl and cucumber /kju.kʌm.bər/), /jʊ/ (cure /kjʊr/), /ə/ (suggest /sə'dʒest/), /ju/ (studious /'stju:.di.əs/), /ʊ/ (sound /saʊnd/) and /u:/ (wound /wu:nd/).

Surprisingly, the letter “e” has its counterpart in Urdu the vowel “ی” but it is mispronounced due to its various sounds. It is pronounced as a /ə/ (adhere /əd'hə:/), /ɪ/ (demon /di:.mən/), /ɪ/ (exist /ɪg'zɪst/), /ə/ (envelope /'en.və.ləʊp/), e (electric /ɪlek'trɪk/) (enemy /'en.ə.mi/), /ɜ:/ (sir /sɜ:/:). Interestingly, here in the words “envelope, electric and enemy” letter “e” comes as word-initially and word-medially with different sounds

/en.və.ləʊp /, /ɪlek.trɪk/ and /en.ə.mi/. Therefore, Urdu speakers mispronounce some words by mixing these sounds. For instance they say “exist” /eg'zɪst/ instead of /ɪg'zɪst/, “demon” /de.mən/ instead of /di:.mən/) and “envelope” /'en.və.ləʊp/ instead of /'en.və.ləʊp/). The letter “c” is directly considered counterpart of “س” in Urdu that is sound in English but the sounds of “c” such as /ʃ/ in “capricious /kə'prɪʃ.əs/” and /k/ in “conclude /kən'klu:d/” mislead the Urdu speakers. So they pronounce “appreciation” /prɪsi'eɪʃən/ instead of /ə'pri:ʃi'eɪʃən/.

All the facts discussed above affect the segmental and suprasegmental features of L2 (English) making the L2 Pakistani English speakers unintelligible and incomprehensible in an international communication. Through the teaching of such differences among languages especially via the explicit instruction, as it was carried out during this study, may be a way to limit these discrepancies.

1.1.5.2 Teaching English without Teaching of Pronunciation

Albeit the marginalization of teaching of pronunciation in Pakistan and all over the world, now, it is given a growing attention due to its contribution to resolve communication problems (unintelligibility and incomprehensibility). Many methods such as Direct Method, Audio-Lingual Method, the Silent way and Communicative Language Teaching approach etc. are used by language teachers with lots of techniques to minimize the communication problems (Howlader, 2011). Linguists such as Ahmadi & Housen, (2009), Ellis et al. (2009), Saito, (2011) and Ellis (2012) also mentioned the terms “explicit phonetic instruction” and “implicit phonetic instruction” for teaching of pronunciation. Every method and technique is useful in some way according to respective contexts and situations.

How English should be used, taught, and studied as a second language, is a burning topic for the stakeholders: English teachers, trainers and writers across the world. Books, reviews and research articles have been written on this topic: How to Teach English by Harmer (1998), Essentials of English Language Teaching by Edge (1999), The Handbook of Second Language Acquisition by Doughty and Long, (2003), Task-based Language

Teaching by Nunan (2004) and Understanding Language Teaching by Kumaravadivelu (2005), for example. Some English countries are earning a lot of money from the English language courses and from the materials which is written for English language teaching.

English has been taught as a compulsory subject from grade 1 to graduation in all the provinces of Pakistan since 1989 and it was implemented by Pakistan People Party's government but teaching of pronunciation was not part of this plan (Rao & Ahmad, 2013; Rahman, 2010) . The failed graduates in English cannot get graduation degree until they pass the English subject. From the beginning, the ratio of success is very poor in this connection. The ratio of failure in English is very high compared to the other subjects (Tariq, Bilal, Sandhu, Iqbal, & Hayat, 2013). The similar report was presented by to Abbas (1998) that the percentage who passed English in 1998s was 18-20 % at college and university level. In 2007, the annual result announced by a state run University of the Punjab showed that only 26 % students could pass the graduation as a whole while the students who passed the English subject were 31 % (Hamariweb, 2017) and most of the students failed in English. The above mentioned examinations were only about reading and writing skills in English language. And the case of the students of the other universities is probably the same. Rao and Ahmad (2013) support that most of the educated persons whether they are graduate or under graduate, are incompetent in English language skills especially in speaking and listening. This is the case of public educational institutions which cater the need of masses: approximately 70% of the whole population of the country. In all these institutions, apparently English is compulsory subject from grade 1 to graduation. The government always has been endeavoring to promote English in these institutions but the struggle was not effective due to some flaws

and shortcomings in its plans. From the beginning, efforts to improve standard of teaching English has not been up to the mark. Shamim (2008) argues that, may be, a small number of educated people are competent in reading and writing but they are incompetent in speaking and listening.

Surely, there are special institutions which provide quality education with good results especially in English. The educated persons from these institutions are competent in speaking and listening to some extent but the ratio of such persons is less than 1% of the total educated population. Actually, these institutions are basically meant for the elites of the Pakistani society. Rahman (2010) enlists all these institutions categorically. The institutions operated by the armed forces are the Military College Jhelum, the Cadet College Pitaro, the Cadet College Kohat, the Cadet College Razmak, the Cadet College Hasanabdal, the Army Burn Hall College Abbottabad, the Public School Sargodha, the Public School Lower Topa, the Lawrence College Ghora Gali, Pakistan Air Force Model Schools, Bahria Schools and Bahria Colleges and Garrisons Schools. Some institutions are operated by the federal and provincial government such as Aitchison College Lahore, Sadiq Public School Bahawalpur, Boys Public School and College Abbottabad.

There are other state-controlled and autonomous bodies such as the Water and Power Development Authority (WAPDA), the Customs Department, the Pakistan Railways, the Telephone Foundation and the Punjab Police, they operate English-medium schools and Cathedral schools. Some of these institutions have their history after creation of Pakistan, for example the cadet colleges system and some of the private sector institutions such as Saint Mary's Rawalpindi, Presentation Convent Murree, Roots Islamabad, Froebels, Arts and Science Academy, Khaldunia School and so on, were promoted in General Ayoub

Khan's regime to fulfill the need of the Pakistani elite. There are some newly established institutes such as Grammar School Karachi, Beacon House Schools, Colleges and University, Lahore Grammar Schools, LACAS, SISA, American Lyceum and City School System. Some of these institutions have their role prior to the creation of Pakistan such as the Aitcheson College, Lahore which was established to produce the loyal elites which could sympathize with the British Empire and fill the gap between the native masses and the English rulers. Rahman (2010) concludes that establishing a parallel education system is an evidence that government does not trust the public education system operated by itself while majority of students are educated in the public institutions. Thus, the majority that study in these institutions is incompetent in English language particularly they are unintelligible in speaking and incomprehensible in listening. In the above mentioned institutions there is no place of teaching of pronunciation.

To view the actual situation of teaching pronunciation in Pakistan, some of the main pillars of Pakistani educational system can be discussed. In this regard, to draw the real picture of a Pakistani English language teacher, learner, content, methodology and evaluation system with reference to the English language teaching is need of the hour.

1.1.5.3 The Incompetence of the Pakistan ELT Teacher in Pronunciation

Mostly, Pakistani ELT teachers are deficient in the knowledge of teaching English pronunciation. Bashiruddin and Qayyum (2014) indicate that 89% English teachers are not qualified in the English language teaching. However, only 11% teachers hold master

degrees in English Literature with the fact that mostly these teachers were incompetent in speaking and listening skills. It is assumed that Master in Arts (MA) in English is a relevant degree to English language teaching and this blunder has been done by the stakeholders, government and the institutions because they believe that the master degree holders in English Literature are competent for teaching English. However, in some cases, the English teachers are required to fulfill the condition of Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) and Master of Education (M.Ed) to become teacher at school level but at collage level, this condition is not compulsory. Only MA in English Literature is considered eligible to teach Literature as well as English language. This condition fulfill the requirement of teaching English language with the assumption that that the holders of an MA in English are able to teach English language as well while pronunciation is not included in any part of any course even in MA in English.

What would the performance of the teachers who are not even MA in English Literature and they have studied English in Bachelor of Arts (BA) or Faculty of Arts (FA) as a subject consisting of only very concise content materials, and the majority teachers in Pakistani schools hold this qualification. Although, some MA in English degrees are named as MA in English language because some universities have started MA in English courses based upon two modes “Literature ” and “Language” with the addition of two subjects Linguistics and Teaching English as a Foreign Language. Nevertheless, all the eight subjects out of 10 for MA in English are based on pure Literature. The addition of “Language with Literature ” does not mean that pronunciation is part of these courses.

Generally, Pakistani English teachers are too deficient in the verbal ability (intelligibility) which is an obligatory prerequisite for a teacher. This is also the condition of a general teacher in Pakistan.

Bashiruddin and Qayyum (2014) estimate that the Pakistani ELT teachers and learners are facing many problems when they try to speak English such as reluctance, unintelligibility in speaking, in listening and in comprehension. Pakistani English language teacher is untrained. Bashiruddin and Qayyum (2014) assert that only 11% teachers are trained (as general teachers) but ELT teachers are too rare. Mahmood and Ghani (2012) assert that in Pakistan ELT teachers are not properly trained particularly in pronunciation and there is a dire need of teacher training with new methodologies, innovative ways of teaching and positive change in the attitudes of teacher trainers as well.

It can be said that majority of the teachers are not qualified in English language teaching and quite number of teachers are involved in the ongoing professional teaching programs (Shamim, 2011). They are not associated with academic, professional and pedagogical societies which organize conferences and seminars on ELT supporting materials to enhance their ability as English language teachers. Due to the above said facts, the large number of Pakistani ELT teachers is not competent in teaching of pronunciation and they are not properly trained in the English language teaching.

1.1.5.4 Lack of ELT Books for Pronunciation in Pakistan

Limited number of ELT books have been written and published in Pakistan. The books of public schools are prepared, published and delivered free of cost by the government. Usually, three or four subjects are combined into one volume. Many of these books do not have content for pronunciation and if some provide it is impractical and unfeasible in the absence of the trained teachers and language labs (Nawab, 2012; Teevno, 2011).

Teevno (2011) reveals some facts in his investigation about the province of Sindh, Pakistan that public schools have libraries but with no ELT materials available in these libraries while the classes are being taught by the untrained English language teachers. The available textbooks are inadequate which do not fulfill learner's linguistic needs of pronunciation (Nawab, 2012; Warsi, 2004). Warsi (2004) further argues that in USA and UK the ELT books are published according the needs of learners, the content is selected appropriately and the structures are coherently graded with learners proficiency and developmental level while learnability and reachability is staged from simple to complex concepts with comprehensive presentations, exercises and assessments. Nevertheless, Pakistani textbooks lack these attributes. "Audio-visual aids such as flash cards, charts, pictures, models, filmstrips, tape recorders, computers, and overhead projectors" (Warsi, 2004, p) facilitate English language learning but in Pakistani classrooms, mostly, these aids are not used.

Apart from the traditional resources for teaching English such as textbooks, there is array of ELT materials that can be used for teaching of pronunciation. For example, audios, videos, audio players, video players, talking dictionaries, computers, audio books, video books, role-plays, discussion, teacher made or written material, newspapers and any

related written materials can be used through metacognitive approach (also called “learner autonomy” in which learners are self-responsible for their learning, assessment and feedback). However, in Pakistan, textbooks dominate any other source of materials. So, books are read and parroted which determine the methods of teaching and the ways of assessment subjugate teacher and classroom as well and there is no place for oral communication skills (Rahman, 2014).

Mansoor, (2005) draws the picture of ELT in Pakistan where pronunciation of English language is assumed to be learnt eventually through the reading of English Literature. It is also not taught through English Literature in proper way, as it should be taught through Literature, which is one of the methods of ELT. Hişmanoğlu (2005) puts that Literature benefits in teaching of language but with “pedagogically-designed appropriate materials”, clear-cut objectives and the trained English teachers. But in Pakistan, the case is vice versa. The simple degree holders of MA English in Literature are recruited and assumed to be expert for teaching English language teaching, who are actually unaware of the methods of teaching English with no background in teaching and teacher education. These teachers are incompetent to resolve the issues about intelligibility and comprehensibility but they themselves are very poor in communication skills (Bashiruddin & Qayyum, 2014).

It can be summed up that Pakistani ELT classroom lacks ELT books and materials which are the main components of teaching of Pronunciation.

1.1.5.5 Unawareness about Methodology for Teaching Pronunciation in Pakistan

Lots of methods and approaches have been utilized to teach English such as Audio Lingual Method (ALM), Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH), Direct Method (DM) and Grammar Translation method (GTM) (Odlin, 2013; Wetzorke, 2010; Thomas, 2004). Every method has some peculiarities regarding effectiveness in different contexts. Discussing the methodology for teaching English in Pakistan, Warsi (2004), Shamim, (2011), Teevno (2011), Mahmood and Ghani (2012), Ahmad and Rao (2012), and Ahmad, Khan and Munir, (2013) have unanimous opinion against GTM. They think that GTM is the sole reason behind linguistic deficiencies especially in speaking and listening. In Pakistani context, some critics mention the using of archaic methods for English language teaching such as spelling drills, grammatical exercises, internalization of text and translation (Khan, 2009; Rahman, 2014). Surely, GTM has some demerits due to its emphasis on reading, writing, grammar and translation and it lacks student interaction, oral and aural practices that enhance intelligibility and comprehensibility. However, it has served nations for centuries producing great writers and scholars who have handed over great academic inheritance to the world civilizations. Aqel, (2013) argues that GTM is very easy in using and very economical in time, monetary and in human resources providing the depth in conception through mother tongue. Therefore, blaming GTM as the only reason for communication incompetence in Pakistan is not justified. Actually, teachers are not so much trained or qualified to use GTM in its true sense. As cited above Bashiruddin and Qayyum (2014) indicate that 89% English teachers have not related qualification while only 11% have qualification in English Literature who were supposed to have the related expertise (efficient in speaking and

listening) for teaching English. Thus, unqualified teachers do not know about GTM or any other method to carry out their duties as an English language teacher. They follow flukes without awareness regarding objectives, appropriate content, methodology and evaluation. The reason for the incompetence in communication skills especially in pronunciation is due to ignorance/unawareness about pronunciation teaching, unqualified/untrained teachers, lack of resources and lack of solid language policy. Khattak and Abbasi (2014) contend that in Pakistan, there is very small number of teachers who are trained professionally and they are unaware of state of the art, unaware of utilization of resources, ignorant of theoretical background and they do not practice what they learn while pronunciation is practice itself. Majority of the teachers, even the university ELT teachers do not study current researches and they have no opportunities for professional development. The teachers cannot use new method or any innovative method due to the demand of examination system that is based on only marks. So, blaming GTM for this crisis is unfair because GTM has its merits and it has served nations since long. No single method meets all linguistic needs. Methods are selected according to the needs of learners.

Additionally, there is no single method, which can be suitable for every place and time. An eclectic approach to language teaching takes a language as a whole emphasizing the lessons about vocabulary, pronunciation, comprehension, writing skills and productive and receptive skills. All these components require many techniques which can cope with every situation. Thus, Kumar (2013) puts “it is obvious that any one method does not serve the right purpose of teaching English. This is how teaching English by combination

of various methods and approaches will help the teacher to teach English effectively” (p. 3).

GTM can be used to teach effective reading and writing skills and speaking and listening skills can be taught through Direct Method, Audio-lingual Method, Total Physical Response and Communicative Language Teaching (Wali, 2009). The current study used different learning strategies to improve pronunciation via explicit instruction which is backed by Behaviorism (Fasold & Connor-Linton, 2013) Piaget's Cognitive Theory (Geeslin & Long, 2014) and Lev Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory (VanPatten & Benati, 2010). Behaviourism supports the recasting practices of the sounds of segments and words after listening sounds with comparison between L1 and L2 sounds. Cognitive Theory backs the notion of metacognitive approach while Sociocultural Theory maintains the environmental effects (teaching materials, computer, multimedia, software and teacher guidance).

Thus, to teach English language Pronunciation effectively, multiple methods and approaches should be used considering the real situation by creating favorable atmosphere. So, in Pakistani context, different methods for teaching English should be introduced determining the clear objectives in advance to carry out language course backed with teacher training programs and provision of resources.

1.1.5.6 Neglect of Pronunciation in Assessment as Hindrance in Pronunciation Teaching (Main Reason)

Pakistan represents marks oriented society where examination system overrides the objectives and curriculum, methods, materials, and it shapes the activities, drives the teachers and learners according to its own mood and will. The examination system in Pakistan is also responsible for marginalizing teaching English pronunciation because there is no place in the tests for the assessment of intelligibility and comprehensibility in spoken English whereas the objectives for speaking and listening skills have been determined in the national curriculum 2006.

So, the condition of English pronunciation is regrettable regarding the achievement of its goals. Ahmad and Rao (2012) investigate the inconsistencies in English language teaching in Pakistan by collecting data from the teachers of private school system and the public school system. They find that the teachers of both domains have been affected by the examination system. Knowledge about language is gained instead of language itself, accuracy of language (only in writing) is preferred in place of fluency, rules and structures are memorized but not applied and all this is due to washback effects of the examination system. The ultimate goal in achievement tests is only getting high marks because these marks designate the future success. Applicants are merited according to the obtained marks in examinations, the doors for further education are opened for degree holders with high marks and the intelligence and proficiency are assessed on the basis of marks and no marks are allocated to English pronunciation.

Thus, in Pakistan, two skills: reading and writing of English language are numerically evaluated and speaking and listening skills are totally ignored. English language teachers

cannot transgress the boundaries set by the examination system adopting or adapting new methods which may deviate them from the prescribed guidelines set by the authorities under the influence of examination system. They have to enable their students to get goods marks in the examinations, otherwise, they can lose their jobs. Marks and grades are considered as hallmark for imminent success. Examination system encourages rote-learning and teachers are forced to focus on preparation for examination only (Chandio et al. 2013). So, they rely on test-papers, readymade notes, guess papers and selected materials to ensure good marks. Students have to go through a series of tests and trials to perform error free performance in the examinations. As a result, these students are able to get to 98 to 99 % marks in all the subjects but they are not proficient in all four communication skills specifically, in speaking and listening because there is no place of speaking and listening in the summative assessment. In this position, the listening (comprehensibility) and speaking (intelligibility) are bypassed in Pakistani English teaching practices.

Warsi (2004) points out that the assessment procedure in Pakistan lacks the cognitive problem solving approach where objectives are omitted at the outset of learning activities and the test items do not cover the actual content comprehension. Learners do not exhibit the learnt qualities according to the target needs. Clearly, the tests should have encompassed the targets to see the learners' achievement. Tests for English pronunciation are not developed and speaking skills are not assessed and these skills are ignored largely. The tests for English language have been criticized for being subjective to test the knowledge about language. Recently, some portion of the test items comprises the objective or multiple choices but they again test the knowledge about language and do

not test oral language capacity. The control of the examinations exacerbates the situation of English language programs when any kind of method, technique, principle and theory is developed but it cannot be applied because the examination system does not permit it to be a benefactor (Khattak & Abbasi, 2014). Rahman, (2014) depicts Pakistani examinations system for language assessment and states, “In Pakistani colleges, English language teaching is enslaved by the learners’ short-term goal of passing the examinations and obtaining the certificate or the degree for which they have enrolled” (p. 212).

As mentioned in the subheading 1.1.5.2, the schools for the elite are English medium where many of the books written by foreign or native writers are studied. Albeit, phonological abilities are not assessed in these schools too. Ironically, the recommended books by these institutions contain the materials for speaking and listening skills but they are not taught and not included in the examinations. Though fluency and spontaneity are not the direct product of the course books, techniques and examinations but they are byproduct of educational, domestic, societal and some other affluent exposure that develops the basis for linguistic intelligibility and comprehensibility making a learner fluent, spontaneous and confident (Rahman, 2010). An adequate assessment in English language learning can promote efficiency in communication skills. Khattak and Abbasi (2014) confirm the unreliability of examination system where summative examinations are considered as performance markers. Shamim (2011) contends that in Pakistan, the evaluation practices stress on the understanding of content that is itself a barrier for good communication in English language. Ahmad, Ghani, Alam, and Sadiq (2012) find out in their survey research on English language teachers in Kohat, the effects of examination

on four variables: learning time, methodology, content and selection of materials. They conclude that English examinations do not only affect their selection of teaching methodology, duration of learning, content and materials but also ignored the objectives of the course. Thus, the objectives for speaking and listening skills set in the curriculum 2006 are marginalized. English language teachers are forced to teach according to the objectives of examinations. Thus, English language learner tries to focus his attention on improving the writing and reading skills and ignores speaking and listening skills because these skills are not assessed in the examinations.

It can be summed up that the environment regarding teaching English pronunciation is one of the main causes that has hindered the promotion of teaching of pronunciation. The evaluation system has gripped firmly too much the whole educational procedure which is carried out according to the needs of examination where the main objectives are not heeded upon but the high marks and grades usurp the place of the real objectives.

1.1.6 The Phonetic and Phonological Explicit Instruction as a Remedy for Unintelligibility and Incomprehensibility

Abshire (2006), Pullen and Justice (2003) and Yopp & Yopp (2000) provide evidences that the explicit phonetic instruction caused a greater academic achievement in the promotion of correct pronunciation than the implicit instruction or no instruction. Many linguists assert that the explicit instruction effectiveness is linked with the awareness of learners regarding rules and targets because metacognition and metalinguistic awareness is very important part of the inter language development. DeKeyser (as cited in Saito, 2011) concluded “an instructional treatment is explicit if rule explanation forms part of

the instruction (deduction) or if learners are asked to attend to particular forms and try to find out the rules themselves (induction)” (p. 321). Saito (2007; 2011) conducts researches about the segmental or the phonetic explicit instruction on intelligibility and provides evidences for the effectiveness of the explicit instruction.

Ellis, Loewen, Elder, Erlam, Philip, and Reinders (2009) define that the explicit teaching refers to the proceeding based upon the demands on central attentional resources which includes lots of successive facts learning and memorization. It happens consciously resulting in symbolic (vivid and explicit form) kind of knowledge. Ellis (2012) observes, “learners are encouraged to develop metalinguistic awareness of rule” (p. 275) which can be achieved deductively and inductively. Cunningham (1990) puts that in the explicit instruction, learners are instructed when, where, how and why to use phonemic awareness.

In the cognitive psychology, the explicit teaching and implicit have been given a growing attention. The ends and the outcomes play role of a reinforcement in language learning because by the awareness of outcomes, learners are able to judge their performance through metacognitive approach (Ellis et al. 2009). Saito (2007) supports this idea as well that input and output both encourage learners to make their performance better by assessing and strengthening their activities in physical domains.

Ahmadi and Housen (2009) provide theoretical and empirical confirmations of effectiveness of the explicit instruction in the second language acquisition. They (2009) argue that there are three main factors that affect instruction: “the degree of explicitness, intensity, frequency and duration” (p. 133). The study shows that the effects of the

explicit instruction were stronger and more durable than the effects of the implicit instruction.

It was a brief explanation of the explicit instruction. However, some of the writers, as cited above, count multiple strategies, devices and methods in the explicit instruction. So, it would be worthy going through all these techniques and strategies separately which include the explicit instruction. Mather, Wendling and Roberts (2009) present some basic principles while delivering the explicit instruction such as:

- a. Instruction should focus on objectives
- b. Instruction should focus on strategies
- c. Instruction should focus on how to apply the strategies
- d. Instruction should provide the feedback for improvement of strategies
- e. Instruction should focus the monitoring the effectiveness of strategies for improving the performance.

In the present experimental study, the segmental and suprasegmental explicit phonetic instruction or implicit instruction were used as a tool for intervention to see which kind of instruction is more effective than the other. In the current study, the researcher assumed that the pronunciation problems may be resolved and intelligibility and comprehensibility can be improved by the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction. This assumption has already been proved by many studies conducted by Cunningham (1990), and Saito (2007; 2011). While Koike (2014), in Japan, proposed that the explicit teaching approach

would be beneficial in multilingual settings. All these researchers used awareness of segmental features as a tool for change in intelligibility.

Papachristou (2011) was also convinced by many researchers that the explicit phonetic instruction could increase intelligibility but he did experiment on improving vowels production by the explicit phonetic or segmental instruction and his expectation could not be fulfilled. Instead, the implicit segmental instruction was better than the explicit instruction in enhancing native-like duration values. “However, this cannot constitute a robust piece of evidence as to the effectiveness of implicit teaching and recasts in particular since other factors, such as motivation, should be added in” (p 380). Gordon et al. (2013) used two kinds of interventions: the explicit phonetic instruction or segmental and the explicit phonological or suprasegmental instruction on two groups for improving comprehensibility and they proved that the explicit suprasegmental instruction was more effective than the implicit instruction. This trend leads to launch studies on the topic: whether explicit phonetic or explicit phonological instruction is more effective in improving comprehensibility. However, the results of their study proved the effectiveness of explicit instruction. Rahbar et al. (2013) also conducted their research in the Iranian context using suprasegmental instruction to improve comprehensibility.

In the light of the above stated discussion, it can be summed up that the explicit phonetic/segmental and phonological/suprasegmental instruction might be a seminal point to resolve the issues regarding intelligibility and comprehensibility in Pakistan too.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

English communication is an integral part of official, educational, commercial, trade, and judicial, political and social affairs in Pakistan. The Pakistani English users face problems regarding their intelligible and comprehensible communication (Shahzada et al. 2012). Rahman (2014) expresses that Pakistan is not at odds with throngs of localities speaking dozens of languages, dialects, creoles, arcolects, moselects and basilects. Urduization was patronized by every regime in Pakistan but English did not only sustain its hegemony over all the indigenous languages but also it has been become demand of all the clans of Pakistani society. Although Pakistani English has been accepted as a distinct variety in World Englishes and it is used to meet the local needs in non-native context because of its absorption of some of the local languages accent and intonation yet its pronunciation is retorted to the unintelligible extent for the English natives (Hashmi, 2012; Rahman, 2014; Sheikh, 2012). Thus, intelligibility of non-native English speakers has been difficult subject for researchers to determine its causes and remedies (Rahman, 2014).

The studies conducted by Cunningham (1990), Saito (2007; 2011) highlight the need for intelligibility and the significance of the phonetic and phonological instruction because it accrues for more intelligible and comprehensible learners. But, in Pakistan, the teaching and the training of pronunciation is ignored by the trainers, stakeholders and institutions albeit its significant role in communicative competence (Akram & Qureshi, 2012). Baker (2011) asserts that lack of training in pronunciation teaching exacerbates the bad condition of English pronunciation theoretically and pedagogically. Kozłowska, (2014) contends that pronunciation is ignored in ELT because of some reasons: Firstly, the study of this field about language is considered the most difficult adventure. Thus, the

learners who achieve high competence in syntax and lexis tends to be deficient in pronunciation which can be acquired sufficiently by phonetic instruction. Secondly, teachers are less interested in the teaching of pronunciation because they are bound to act upon some norms set by their employer institutions and these norms force them to focus on grammar and vocabulary rather than pronunciation. The examination system adds fuel to the fire in this situation encouraging the written type assessment system. Furthermore, it has been neglected in the available ELT course books with the exacerbating notion that educators and teachers think that the book writers are perfect and competent in their subject, so, they rely upon the books (Ali, Tauseef, and Shah, 2015).

Similarly, Ali et al. (2015) observe that in Pakistan, the syntax, morphology and semantics are taught explicitly but the phonology and phonetics are ignored. As cited above, locally, the communication teaching plan is carried out through reading or writing all over the country. Rhaman (2014) cites that only in the top management or English medium institutions, the local aural and oral competency can fulfill the communicative needs. However, internationally or globally, doctors, engineers, architects, lawyers, judges, politicians, traders, importers, exporters, book writers, course designers, teachers, students face great difficulty in intelligible and comprehensible communication (Al Hosni, 2014; Burnett, 1998; Paakki, 2013; Riemer, 2007). Therefore, when they go abroad, they have to learn English to meet global contextual needs. For this purpose different kind of tests such as The Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), International English Language Testing System (IELTS), pre-sessional English language courses for international students and English language tests for immigrants are carried out. Rauf and Iqbal

(2008) point out that Pakistani students and immigrants in USA face linguistic difficulties in selection of suitable tone, pitch, stress and intonation. In this case, the teaching of phonetic and phonological aspects can be very useful. Kashiwagi, Snyder and Craig (2005) conclude that the results of their study show that the explicit phonetic instruction treatment does not only enhance the metalinguistic knowledge, aural perception abilities but also it enhances the better global pronunciation.

Derwing, Munro, and Wiebe (1998) put that the goal of teaching pronunciation should be intelligibility and comprehensibility rather than accentedness. To attain the acceptable intelligibility, some models are devised by different linguists. But the third world countries, in which Pakistan is included, do not feel the need for such native models, though, their variety of English is not intelligible and comprehensible internationally. They use English as instrumental or utilitarian purposes (Rahman, 2014). Munro (2011) acknowledges that the goal of pronunciation instruction is to assist students grasping an easily intelligible pronunciation rather than a native-like one. Rahman (2014) suggests a comprehensive model to teach correct English with corrections of mistakes and with ruled-governed deviations of Pakistani English (PE) to which he calls “Pakistani Standard English or PSE” (P. 81).

Likewise, the debates regarding the implicit instruction and the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction have been attracting researches towards their comparison in affecting the teaching of pronunciation. Couper (2003) expresses that the explicit phonetic instruction with the assertion that the explicit phonetic instruction helped in driving out the suspicions of those teachers who were doubtful about the worth of the explicit phonetic instruction. Lintunen (2013) exposes the positive effects of the explicit

instruction in evaluating pronunciation errors systematically compared to implicit instruction. Koike (2014) planned to utilize learner's metalinguistic awareness of rules inductively describing with derivation of rules and linguistic forms deductively using in communication. In inductive awareness, as Goodwin (2001) names it as a bottom-up awareness that starts from segments to suprasegments. It is a study of forms explicitly taught to enable the learners to differentiate between the native speaker pronunciation and their own pronunciation.

Currently, the need for phonetics instruction, especially the explicit instruction is considered to be useful in promotion of correct pronunciation and its benefits have been proven by many international researchers such as Rahbar et al. (2013) in Iran, Gordon et al. (2013) in USA, Koike (2014) in Japan and Khanbeiki (2015) in Iran. Phonetic instruction is also one of the main factors that influences intelligibility and comprehensibility positively. Researchers are agreed upon the positive effects of phonetic and phonological instruction in teaching of pronunciation. The investigation carried out by Lipińska (2013) reveals that formal phonetic instruction helped the Polish learners in pronouncing difficult vowels with the claim that the segmental features were better than the suprasegmental features. Kozłowska (2014) states that the effective phonetic instruction includes a comprehensive approach to mould the body and mind of the learner involving the development of learner's motor skills fit to receive and produce proper sounds and exploiting the learner's cognitive mechanism needed for formation of L2 sound system.

Supporting the mentioned above ideas, Gordon et al. (2013) necessitate the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction for communicative competence in spite of the

challenge of the gap between the theory and practice in teaching of pronunciation. As cited above, many studies support the idea of the explicit instruction to teach pronunciation components. Some renowned theories too contribute to the current study. For example, Cognitivism provides the notion of metacognitive methods where learners are self-motivated to embark upon their own learning enterprise. Behaviorism offers some practices to teach pronunciation via Audio Lingual Method (ALM) and Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) while the Sociocultural Theory highlights the importance of context, teacher guidance and trained elders (Odlin, 2013; Thomas, 2004; Wetzorke, 2010).

Therefore, the struggles to obtain the target communication skills have been started for decades. Morley (1991) explains that the adventure for pronunciation teaching was set out in 1980s and it obtained its momentum in 1990s due to the excitement in adult learners who were deprived of intelligible communicative skills. This condition also urged the need for expanding the work in the horizons of teaching English. So, Kachru and Nelson (2006) argue that much of ESL or EFL work is concerned with the forms of English that are intelligible across the regional and local boundaries. A lot of work has been done but much more is needed for promotion of teaching in the pronunciation realm and no more it cannot be ignored (Warsi, 2004). The condition in Pakistan for teaching pronunciation demands more attention than other post-colonial countries (Howlader, 2010). The researchers like Cunningham (1990), Saito (2007), Papachristou (2011), Ellis (2012), Rahbar et al. (2013), and Koike (2014) have provided evidences in the support of the notion of the effectiveness of the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction over the non-explicit or the implicit instruction. All these studies were in different foreign

contexts, i.e., USA, Japan, Iran and Greek on reading and some segmental features. But, the current study was carried out in Pakistani context focusing on some segments: fifteen vowels /æ/, /e/, /ə/, /ɜ:/, /ʊ/, /ɑ/, /a/, /ʌ/, /i:/, /ɪ/, /aɪ/, /u/, /ə/ and /ɜ/ and 16 consonants /j/, /ʃ/, /z/, /ʒ/, /g/, /dʒ/, /tʃ/, /k/, /θ/ and /ð/ and four suprasegmental features: word stress, liaison, elision and assimilation to improve intelligibility and comprehensibility in the Pakistani context. These segments and suprasegments have been investigated as a problematic domain through the studies of Ghulamullah and Hamzah (2017), Hashmi (2012), Sheikh (2012), Malghani and Bano (2014) Rehman et al. (2012) and Khan and Qadir (2012) with Pakistani English speakers.

Thus, in Pakistan, the issue of communication gap in oral skills may be resolved through the teaching of English pronunciation via explicit instruction. Particularly, unintelligibility and incomprehensibility may be reduced by the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction that is focus of the current study. Because many above stated studies support the idea that explicit phonetic and phonological instruction have been proved effective in improving intelligibility and comprehensibility.

1.3 The Objectives of the Study

This study focuses on the following objectives:

1. To compare the effects of implicit and explicit phonetic and phonological instruction on the intelligibility of Pakistani students' English pronunciation.

2. To compare the effects of implicit and explicit phonetic and phonological instruction on the comprehensibility of Pakistani students' English pronunciation.
3. To know the opinions of the participants of the study regarding the efficacy of the study.

1.4 Research Questions

1. Is the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction more effective than the implicit instruction in improving intelligibility of the intermediate level Pakistani English learners?
2. Is the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction more effective than the implicit instruction in improving comprehensibility of the intermediate level Pakistani English learners?
3. What are the opinions of the intermediate level Pakistani English learners about the explicit and implicit instruction?

1.5 Research Hypotheses

Keeping in the mind the objectives of the study, the following directional hypotheses (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2012) were formulated to see the difference between the effects of the explicit and implicit instruction:

1. The intermediate level Pakistani English learners who receive the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction are better in intelligibility than the learners who receive the implicit instruction.
2. The intermediate level Pakistani English learners who receive the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction are better in comprehensibility than the learners who receive the implicit instruction.

1.6 Theoretical Foundations of the Study

Finding the reality or the truth, the hypotheses or the related questions are rigorously tailored or sorted out through the detailed gathered data to formulize rules. Thus, research has become a systematic and controlled investigation to solve a problem or to find out new information or understandings. It is an application of scientific method where problem is identified, assumptions are postulated, and data is collected and analyzed to prove or refute the assumptions (Gay et al. 2012; Sreejesh, Mohapatra, & Anusree, 2013). An assumption and the way of inquiry is a nucleus of a research around which all other procedures revolve. Cohen et al. (2007) suggest that these assumptions are supposed on the basis of the ontological considerations that give rise to the epistemological issues, and then these issues drive to methodological concerns: these concerns, in turn, give the rise to the matters about instrumentation and data collection. The ontological query in social phenomena raises the questions whether the discovery of reality or truth lies within individuals or it is an external entity imposed upon them to shape their personalities. Whether reality is product of individual's consciousness or it comes from the environment around him (Burrell & Morgan, 1979; Costanzo & MacKay, 2009; Côté,

2014; Eggert, 1998; Kahl, 2008; Kleiboer, 1998). The philosophical point of view that the truth is peripheral, considers individuals as subjects who are bound to act upon the predetermined objectives set by the external authority (this point of view supports the current study regarding provision of language exposure, teacher guidance, use of different devices to learn pronunciation). This school of thought is a subfield of Realism. If it is believed that the reality or the truth comes from within individuals and it is individual that governs the facts, is the effect of the general philosophy “Idealism” (Kneller, 1971) (this point of view supports the current study regarding provision of learner autonomy; think how to learn pronunciation). The ontological considerations determine the epistemological issues. When positivists believe that truth can be explored from the experience and the observation of environment, then the knowledge would not be considered the product of individual's consciousness and mind, as “anti-positivists” believe. This school of thought subscribes to “Anti Positivism, Post Modernism and Interpretivism” (Caldwell, 2010; Cohen et al. 2007). However, the true knowledge can be gained only through interaction with environment. The subscription to this point of view is “Positivism, Modernism and Normativism”. Thus, search for the facts and the fundamental truths would follow the empirical paradigm where objectives are focused with the absence of any kind of subjectivity. These facts are measured accurately by the valid and reliable measuring tools as it happens in natural sciences. However, both the schools of thought with their weaknesses and limitations have contributed to humanity in numerous disciplines. Likewise both the schools of thought contributed to the current study in shape of external and internal factors as they have been stated above.

The beliefs of general philosophy when applied to education, turn into educational philosophy that provides guidelines to every field of education (Neerja, 2003). Psychologists' endeavors to answer the questions related to language learning are remarkable. "Behaviorism", the most influential theory in 1950-60s, believes that second language learning is like the learning of the first language (Fasold & Connor-Linton, 2013). The second language learners learn L2 like the first language (L1), i.e., by imitation, repetition and reinforcement without knowing the meaning of words (as it happens in the implicit instruction). It believes that the errors made by the second language learners are due to the interference of the patterns or habits of L1. The existing knowledge L1 when differs from the knowledge of L2, it interferes with second language development. For example, an Arabian learner would have difficulty to pronounce the alveolar phoneme /t/ and allophone [t^h] because this sound does not exist in Arabic but there is dental sound /ت/ that is pronounced with the tip of tongue touching the teeth. This phenomena hurdles the acquisition of L2. Thus, the similarities and dissimilarities of L1 and L2 are compared by the process called "Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH)" with the assertion that the best language teaching materials are grounded on the comparison of the two contending languages (Odlin, 2013; Wetzorke, 2010) (in the current study, in explicit phonetic instruction, the practice of sound matching, sound isolation and sound addition between L1 and L2 was done under CAH). Then, the later studies indicate that most of the errors done by L2 learners could not be traced to their L1. For the implementation of its beliefs, Behaviorism promoted Audio Lingual Method (ALM) which has been severely criticized due to some theoretical implications. In ALM, students are encouraged to listen to pronunciation, and then imitate that listening,

recording their own speeches and dialogues and drills are performed to develop habits (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005) (this model contributed the idea of implicit phonetic instruction where learners try to learn pronunciation through skill and drill, repetition and imitation). Related to the current study, Behaviorism and ALM supported the notion of the implicit instruction (the independent variable for the experimental Group B of this study that was taught implicitly to improve intelligibility and comprehensibility). The intervention for this group consisted of repetition, recasting and listening activities are the main features of ALM. However, in the explicit instruction, these practices were also carried out with the focus on some rules that make these practices logical. Thus, Behaviorism supported both the instructions explicitly and implicitly.

However, in 1970s, the views or tenets of Behaviorism were challenged by Noam Chomsky's innateness about language learning. The innateness promotes the notion that a child has mechanism of learning innately. Nativism relies on four arguments: First, all children, even a mentally and physical impaired one, acquire language quickly with no trouble while an adult learner strives for the mastery of the second language for years (King, 2013). Nativists claim that all children remarkably get uniform mastery nearly in few years without special instruction and education at the same rate and in the same duration. This argument refutes the notion of behaviorists that children learn language by reinforcement.

Secondly, children hear speech of adults, which is often incomplete, haphazard and disorganized. Nonetheless, with this fragmented and jumbled input children are able to generate complex sentence structure that is not learned through reinforcement and external mechanism. Here, the researcher's own observation is mentionable that his child

(Talut Mujahid) started speaking when he was two years old. The researcher observed two striking incidents: the child called his four elder sisters with the names that were not uttered at home absolutely. For instance, he named his first elder sister as "Saja" while her name was "Saadia". He named his second elder sister as "Anna" whose name was "Bakhita". He used to call his third elder sister as "Tabcha" whereas her name was "Skeefa" and he named his fourth elder sister as "Balla" while her name was "Taymiyyah". This happening was very surprising for the whole family because any member of the family never spoke these names. Another incident which was also remarkable, that he started speaking nouns first, then he learned to speak verbs and in the last he used prepositions in his speech.

From these personal observations, it can be concluded that the nativists' innateness is right in its notion that a child has innate ability to generate language. However, Nativism could not provide systematic rules to teach the second language to the adult learners. Although, it claims that experience of life and culture of language plays a pivotal role in language development, yet it is unable to provide a vivid plan for teaching language. Wen (2013) argues supporting Nativism "it is the experience of life and culture that interacts with or sparks the innate properties of language acquisition so that children would "naturally" or "automatically" pick up the language" (p. 149). It is clear, albeit, that along with Nativism's notion of inner ability to learn language, the role of exposure is invincible which is the focus of behaviorists. Thus, this theory too contributed to the current study in the promotion of enriched exposure to learn pronunciation.

Thirdly, as King (2013) puts that nativists assert that children seldom receive feedback from their elders and when it happens, they forget, by and large, the provided feedback.

Lastly, children produce rule based systems, i.e., they speak the sentences which they never heard from the adults, if it is true then where is the role of imitation and reinforcement. Moreover, Chomsky declares that language acquisition must be governed by innate restrictions and it is not dependent upon the cognitive or thinking processes because language is acquired when child is not capable of complex thinking and therefore it does not rely on "intelligence, cognition and experience" (Harley, 2013; 2014 p. 110). He affirms that language acquisition occurs due to the innate language system named as the "Language Acquisition Device (LAD)" in human mind (Trask, 2007). Later the LAD was replaced by "Universal Grammar" with the notions that a child does not learn language but it is developed by the rules and parameter setting of natural grammar starting from the "initial state" (Thomas, 2004, p. 4). Conversely, currently, these Chomskyan notions have been criticized because of theoretical and practical implications and because there is no clear framework to teach a language. Thus, it seems that Nativism supports indirectly contribute to the current study because it does not ignore the importance of exposure of language. So, the explicit instruction included a lot of external devices to promote a language exposure. The cognitivists oppose the views of nativists that human brain has specific place for language learning but language is learnt where the other knowledge is acquired.

Geeslin and Long (2014) debate that Cognitive Theory is concerned with the learning process, i.e., how knowledge is gained, stowed, used, and the like and tries to focus on "learning styles, understanding (how people make sense of something), aptitude, information processing, and other areas" (Tavakoli, 2012, p. 65). In Cognitive Theory, all humans in learning whether it is general learning or language learning use the same

learning mechanisms. Therefore, it can be said that the cognitivists' views about SLA are underdevelopment because the focus is on the learning process that they do not think language as a separate object in mind but just one of the many information that is possessed via cognitive mechanisms (Myles, 2013). Cognitivists are also interested in individual as a person but not as a social being opposing the socio-culturalists because cognitivists' individual is not bound to society for language acquisition. He learns language through his mental capacities of language learning. However, he reacts to his surroundings to process, organize and store information (Ellis, 2015).

Cognitive Theory presents two outstanding models for SLA: Processing Model and Connectionism (Xiangui, 2005). According to Processing Model, nodes are property of memory network or neural network (Geeslin & Long, 2014). When new information of L2 are encoded in the short-term memory, it activates the nodes, this process is named as a “controlled process”. Recurring activation of nodes makes them automatize the products of the controlled process that in turn are stored in the long-term memory and are undeletable. This process is called “automatic process”. After the storage in the short-term memory, the long-term memory becomes ready to tackle the structures that are more complex. Thus, the second language learners acquire language from simple to complex and from “controlled process” to “automatic process” repeatedly.

The second prominent cognitivist model is Connectionism that ruminates human brain like a computer where language acquisition is considered as an establishment of the strengths among various connections in brain (Teuscher, 2012). Connectionists hold that the exposure of linguistic input to SLA, learners strengthen the mental connections of the linguistic system and by the repetition of input, the connections become stronger. As a

result, the present linguistic element activates its counterpart. The recurrence of both the elements makes them rememberable and toughens the connections. Cognitivists' notions support the current study to the extent that it provides the notion of cognitive ability of language learning in human mind. This notion is coherent with the metacognitive approach of language learning: one of the components of the explicit instruction (the independent variable for Group A for the current study). Furthermore, the cognitivist model "Connectionism" promotes repetition for the stronger learning and the repetition, which is mentioned earlier, is a part of the implicit instruction (the independent variable for Group B for the current study). Therefore, Cognitivism provides guidelines for the procedure of the current study.

Cognitive theory concerning SLA has been criticized due to its complex representations of atomization of language skills through gradual developmental stages, linking them with previous knowledge and restructuring new information. The different cognitivist models are complicated to carry out a comprehensive practice for SLA. Its philosophy, concerning associated learning indicates that like other information, language learning is also processed in the same way, marginalizes SLA. Connectionism has been criticized that it is a revival of behaviorism that is camouflaged with neuroscience. Although it started its journey in 1943, yet its notions are originated from the concepts of Aristotle about mental association (Teuscher, 2012). Simply, connectionism is a recalling and repetition that makes knowledge automatic, the part of the long-term memory and its view about input-output associations is like a stimulus- response. Moreover, the connectionists' analogy of brain with computer is too misfit because the human brain is more complex than a computer. However, Cognitivism contributed to the learning

process to some extent. So, some parts of intervention of the current study were supported by this theory.

Disagreeing with cognitivists who think that SLA is related to the mind of man, Lev Vygotsky considered cognition and language as a social phenomenon. He presented a nonlinguistic theory called “Sociocultural Theory” based on the assumptions that human thinking is originated from the external social factors (Geeslin & Long, 2014; VanPatten & Benati, 2010). This theory claims that all kind of learning is gained by the interaction with social settings: family, school, social groups, work places, and the like. It regards SLA as a context-oriented activity carried out within the social constructs boundaries with the relation to the internal process, and language is considered as a means for social drives (Tavakoli, 2012). This theory emphasizes the reliance of children on the interaction with their elders or the skilled persons to solve the problems due to their lack of the internal tactical means which are required to solve problems by themselves. The process of this reliance is called “other-regulation” (Geeslin & Long, 2014, p. 86). According to other-regulation, a learner uses language that first arises as a tool to mediate his own thinking (inner or mental processes with what is in the other's thinking or outer environment).

This view sees language, literacy, numeracy, and the like as a mediator in the mediation process in grasping the constructs of the social context (VanPatten & Benati, 2010). This theory directs a teacher through scaffolding to plan activities, questions, interactions, textbooks and stimuli that may help learners in the actualization of their level (Gartrell, 2014). Here, teacher makes his students think what they are performing and where they have to finish their performance by modeling, peer tutoring, his participation and

explanation. He acts as an adept who helps a novice learner to learn a new skill breaking into small units from lower steps to higher steps through “Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)” which is a learner's level of competence between what he can do and what he can do with other's assistance or what he cannot do alone (Bergin & Bergin, 2015). Thus, with the assistance of the skilled person, learners become able to internalize their own knowledge and their expertise gained through the interaction with society.



Figure 1.1 Teacher's Scaffolding in ZPD

This process is called appropriation. The example of scaffolding can be understood by the Figure 1.1 where a teacher helps his student to his ZPD level. He holds his student from falling from his bicycle until the student becomes able to run his bicycle independently. But whenever the teacher feels again the threat of falling, he again shields his student. However, when learners are able to control their own cognitive power and complete their task independently by the appropriated knowledge and skills they acquire the ability of “self-regulation”. Another term “private speech”, coined by Vygotsky as Piaget's self-talk, also called “egocentric speech”, is considered as a guide to progress in conduct and thinking (Gartrell, 2014). Vygotsky thinks that the talking of learners to themselves is actually struggle to find out new ideas that is an alternative to a teacher. But both, Vygotsky and Piaget have different notions about self-talk. Piaget thinks that self-talk is faded away by concrete operational stage but Vygotsky says that the self-talk or private

speech is not washed out but it converts into inner speech and it represents an “externalization” of inner speech (Geeslin & Long, 2014).

Sociocultural Theory is, actually, an extreme contrast to Cognitive Theory where an individual loses his identity and is shaped with the texture of social norms though he and teacher are considered active participants in sociocultural activities. One of the major limitations of sociocultural theory is that it should follow either psycholinguistic or sociolinguistic paradigm and it could not provide either linguistic or social dimensions of integration. Although, this theory sees learner and teacher as active participants, yet learner is mere puppet in the hands of his seniors and is bound to the social norms (Gu, 2009). The Sociocultural Theory is the most influential in the current study because here the subjects of the study interacted with the teacher as an expert elder, the use of computer, multimedia, the groups of learners and the language lab setting was the context that is main component of sociocultural theory. Furthermore, here in this study, a teacher used scaffolding as a teacher uses in ZPD of this theory. The subjects converted their self-talk or private speech into inner speech through externalization. In the current study, the eclecticism or pluralism approach is used due to the usage of dimensional methods to teach pronunciation. Because one theory focuses on the surrounding of a learner ignoring the learner’s internal capabilities of SLA while the supporters of cognitive and metalinguistic approach have twisted the perspectives on discourse and communication struggling to reach a target capability of a fanciful native speaker (Firth & Wagner, 1997). Both the schools of thought are on the poles with the ontological and epistemological divergence. This situation raises the voice in favor of theoretical pluralism with the cognitive and social dimensional factors which strengthen the

language acquisition and its use (Gu, 2009). Thus, this study was influenced by the theories which emphasized on cognition and mental capacities of SLA to the extent that the explicit instruction implies metacognition approach where learners (in experimental Group A) strived to accelerate their learning by thinking rules and methods to learn second language (Wegerif, Li Li, James, & Kaufman, 2015). Here, learners were self-responsible for their learning instead of objects or participants. Further, the repetition, recasting and practice were used in the implicit instruction for the experimental Group B. On the other side, the role of environment (computer, multimedia, language lab, and language learning materials) and teacher or guide cannot be denied. One can see that both of the general philosophies:- Realism and Idealism influenced the explicit and the implicit instruction directly or indirectly via their followers' theories. All the theories except Nativism contributed to the explicit and the implicit instruction. However, overall, Sociocultural Theory strikingly influenced the explicit instruction.

Summing up, all the theories contributed to the issues related to language learning with the difference that some theories carry out the detailed debates regarding SLA while some seem to consider SLA as a subfield of knowledge (in general). Behaviorism presents that mother tongue is learnt by imitation, repetition and reinforcement without knowing the meaning of words and same is the case with second language (Fasold & Connor-Linton, 2013). It influenced SLA through its two distinguished models: Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) and Audio Lingual Method (ALM) (Odlin, 2013; Flowerdew & Miller, 2005; Wetzorke, 2010). Language learners under CAH compare the similarities and dissimilarities of L1 and L2 while via ALM, first they listen, then imitate, repeat, and record their speech for corrective response. Nativism believes

that children acquire language due to the innate language system (Harley, 2013; 2014). All children have uniform mastery in their childhood without special instruction but adults do not possess this skill. Children are able to generate complex sentences while they listen to incomplete and jumbled sentences from their elders. They speak the sentences which they never heard from their adults. However, it happens only in the critical period of language learning that is childhood (King, 2013; Bergmann, Hall and Ross, 2007). For this purpose, Nativism presents the notion of Language acquisition device (LAD) and Universal Grammar (Thomas, 2004). It thinks that the second language learning is different from the acquisition of a mother tongue. Nevertheless, second language can be learnt in the language atmosphere. (an environment and interaction with family, school, society) (Aljoundi, 2014).

Cognitive Theory does not separate language learning from general learning. It thinks that all human beings learn language like other knowledge. Thus, all kind of learning whether it is general or language learning is learnt via same mental mechanisms for learning (Myles, 2013). This theory presents two famous models: Processing Model and Connectionism (Teuscher, 2012; Xiangui, 2005). It thinks that human mind is like a computer. Therefore, it promotes Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) with the extension of metacognitive approach to language learning. It also promotes listening, imitation and repetition activities in language learning. Sociocultural Theory encircles the language learning process only in the social domain. It believes that human beings learn language through external social factors such as family, school, social groups and work places (Geeslin & Long, 2014). It postulates the notion of zone of proximal development (ZPD) that is a milestone in the learning process of a child (Bergin & Bergin, 2015). It

emphasizes that language is learnt by peer learning, cooperation, student-teacher relationship, language lab, language learning materials and language practice.

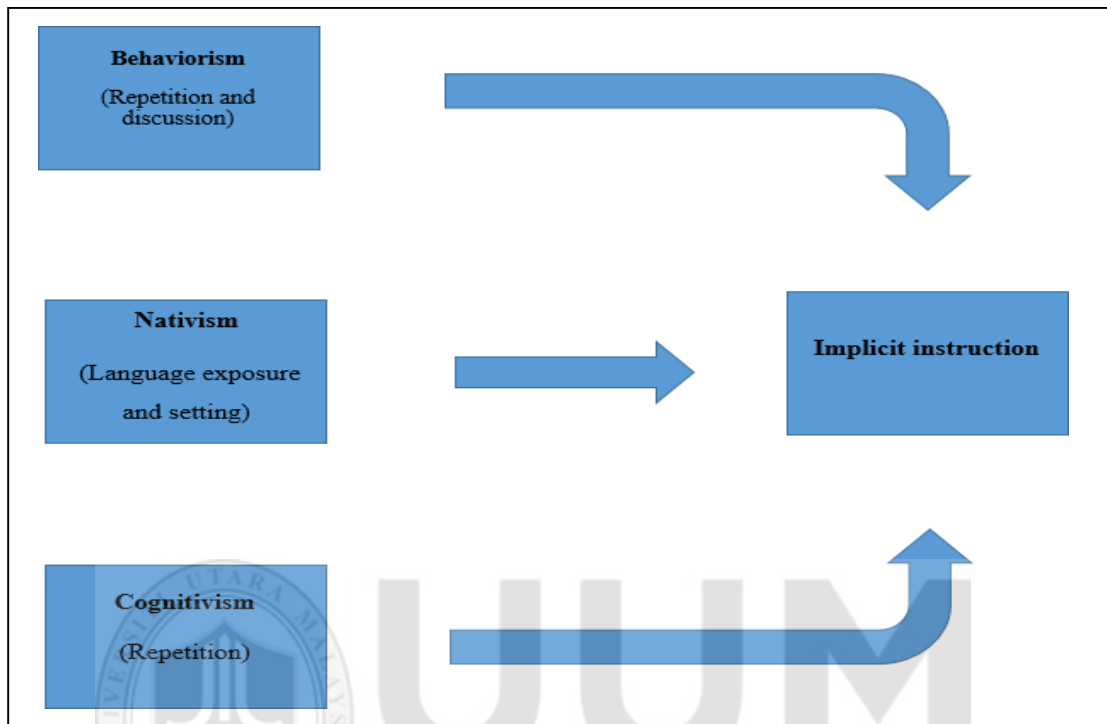


Figure 1.2 Theoretical Framework of the Explicit Instruction

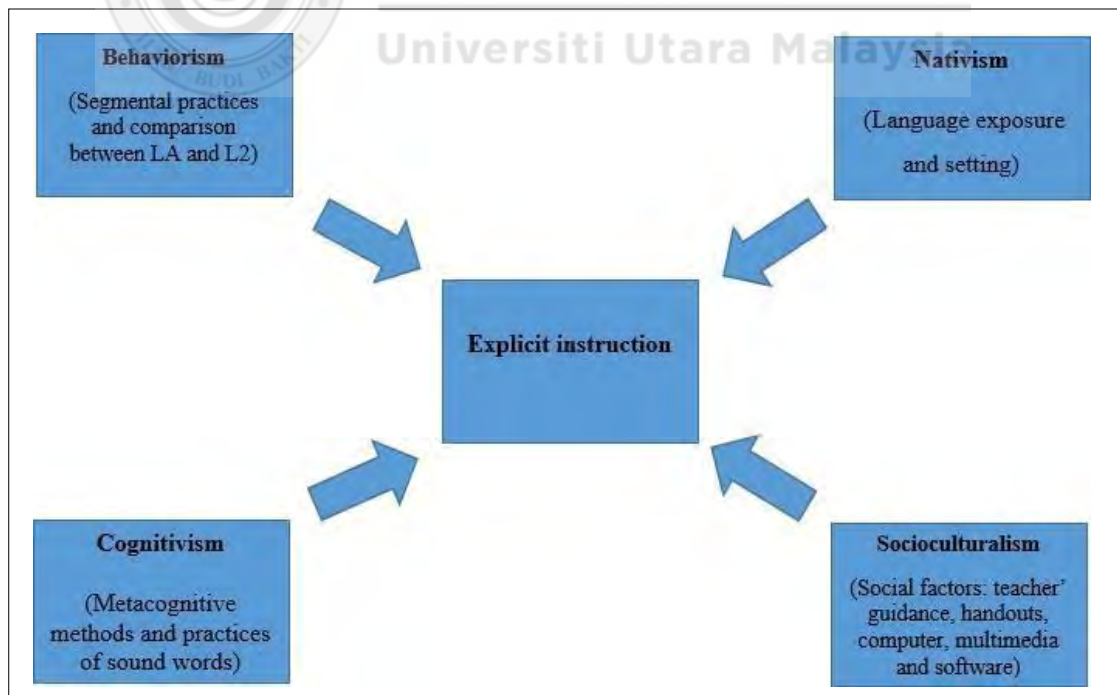


Figure 1.3 Theoretical Framework of the Implicit Instruction

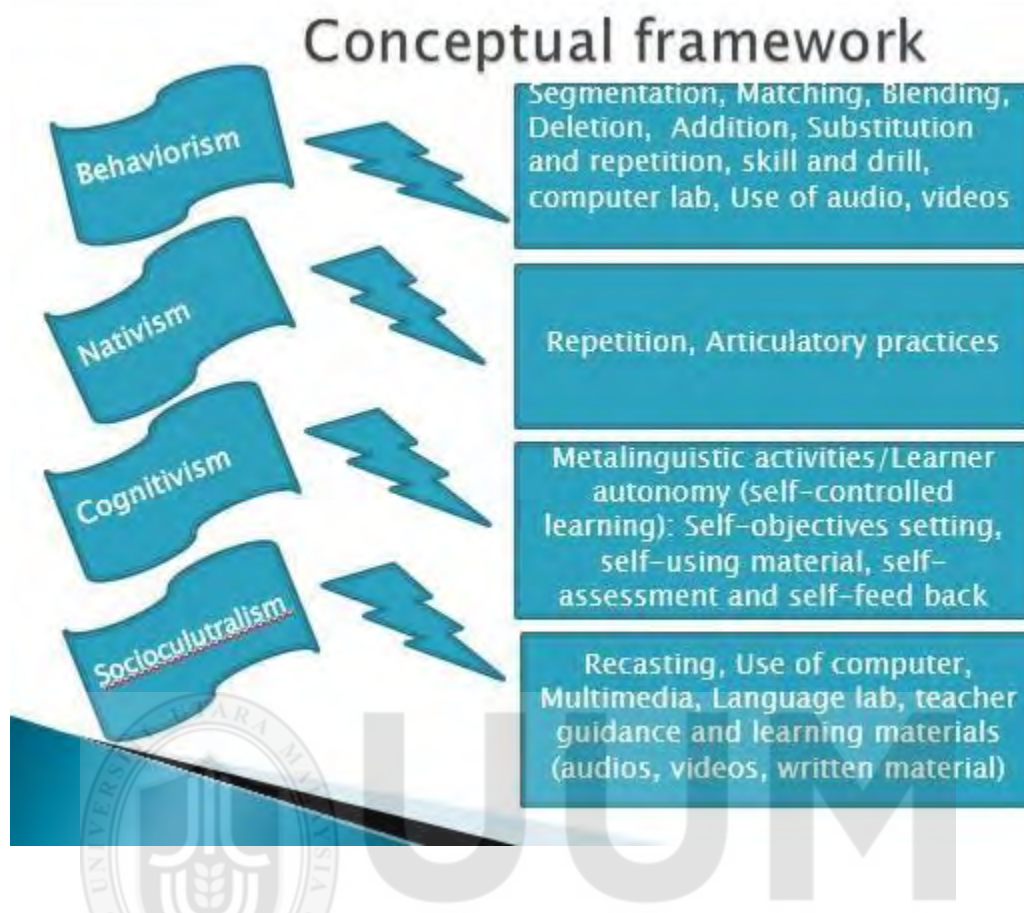


Figure 1.4 Conceptual Framework

As cited above and from Figures 1.2, 1.3, and 1.4 it can be assessed that all the theories supported the current study. Under the effects of Behaviorism, the subjects of the study practiced the sounds of segments and words after listening the sounds from the videos under the guidance of ALM and Cambridge Advanced learner's Dictionary (CALD). The subjects compared the L1 and L2 sounds to correct the wrong pronunciation using IPA and CALD under the effects of CAH. The subjects imitated their teacher repeatedly and practiced the corrected phrases or statements after listening following ALM. They also discussed different topics using ALM method. Under the umbrella of Cognitive Theory, the learner autonomy was promoted for metacognitive methods: setting objectives,

selection of appropriate materials and methods to learn how to learn due to the cognitivist' notion that language is learned by mental mechanism. The subjects also practiced the sounds and words under the effects of Connectionism. Sociocultural Theory influenced the current study greater than the other theories. According to Sociocultural Theory, the influence of social factors is immense in language learning, so the language lab was used for the conduct of the experiment of the current study. The researcher guided the subjects using ZPD and different learning materials: handouts, computer, multimedia and software (CALD). The least influential theory in this study was Nativism, which supported the idea of language exposure.

1.7 Significance of the Study

Ironically, English language has marginalized the local languages in Pakistan. Pakistan is the only country in South Asia whose official language is English (Crystal, 2003). All the official correspondence is carried out through English even the constitution of the country has been written in English. English is key to success in every clan, ethnicity and in every class of Pakistani society (Rahman, 2003; 2005; 2010; 2014). It is studied from grade 1 to graduation as a compulsory subject. But, overall the educated persons are incompetent in four skills of English language (Jabeen, (2013). So, any study relating effective teaching English language is important in Pakistani context. However, the main problem in this regard is incompetence in aural and oral skills. Teaching of pronunciation is ignored worldwide with no exception in Pakistan. Therefore, this study gives the growing attention to the teaching of pronunciation particularly using the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction and the implicit phonetic and phonological instruction.

Traditionally, pronunciation is taught implicitly via drill, imitation, rehearsal and silent listening without awareness of rules. This approach is also useful in teaching pronunciation but it is more effective for the learners of primary level than the adult learner (Majoka, Khan, & Khan, 2016). For adult learners, the explicit instruction has been proved more effective as it is supported by lots of researches (Abshire, 2006; Pullen & Justice, 2003; Yopp & Yopp, 2000). This study is particularly meant for investigation of the effects of the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction versus implicit phonetic and phonological instruction. The explicit instruction, actually, is a metacognitive approach in which learners are prepared to get knowledge how, what and why to improve their communication skills. So, this approach can motivate the Pakistani ESL learners to learn correct pronunciation via self-controlled learning settings.

To solve this issue, few studies have been conducted in the field of pronunciation in Pakistan. But, English is taught and learnt as a foreign language with the focus only on writing and reading. In Pakistan, usually pronunciation is not taught even by the traditional methods (Majoka, Khan, & Khan, 2016). So, this study was an advance adventure to teach English pronunciation through the explicit and implicit instruction. The results of this study proved more effective in the promotion of correct pronunciation trends, so, it can be said that it was a tremendous step to cope with the communication problems in ELT.

Furthermore, the results of the study show that after the treatment of two months' duration, the level of intelligibility and comprehensibility of the participants improved from poor to level to better level, is a landmark for carrying out some more serious and mega projects to cope with the issue of unintelligibility and incomprehensibility. This study may be a

short cut way to get the desired outcomes in teaching pronunciation as well. An inventory of problematic words for Pakistani ESL speakers has been provided after the laborious task of months that may be a key content in the teaching pronunciation syllabus in Pakistan.

As is stated above, this experiment was a total new enterprise in the ELT domain in Pakistan. This initiative may encourage the learners, teachers, trainers, researchers and stakeholders to launch more programs to teach pronunciation using the explicit phonetic and phonological or the implicit phonetic and phonological instruction.

1.8 Delimitation of the Study

The current study overlaps the three major areas of applied linguistics: computational linguistics, sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics. Under the umbrella of psycholinguistics, segmental features and suprasegmental features were taught to the secondary school level learners with the special treatment of the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction where students learnt the rules of pronunciation consciously then they applied them to learn correct pronunciation. A model of the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction was devised which was followed during the experimentation to see the effects on the required intelligibility.

The target, comprehensibility was probed with help of sociolinguistics. Although the study did not focus on the native-like pronunciation, yet it tried to expose the native General American (GA) norms to the learners, which were indispensable to convey correct meaning to the uttered words in right time. To remove the communication gap,

the usage of English demands some rules in a global perspective that may be common among all the speakers of English language. The devised model was shaped keeping in mind the native context.

Computational linguistics exposed some devices, such as CD-ROM, headphones, microphones, correct pronunciation software, speaking English software, audios and videos, which were used for corrective feedback. The 9-point Likert scale was used to analyze, assess the reproduction of acoustic speech signals (measuring intelligibility) while to assess the correct meaning understood by listeners (measuring comprehensibility) the listening IELTS test was used.

The study comprised two independent variables: segmental phonetic instruction and suprasegmental phonetic instruction and two dependent variables: intelligibility and comprehensibility. In the segmental instruction, fifteen vowels /æ/, /e/, /ə/, /i/, /u/, /ʊ/, /a/, /ʌ/, /ɪ/, /ɔ/, /ɑ/, /ʊ/, /ɪ/ and eleven consonants /j/, /s/, /z/, /l/, /ʃ/, /g/, /dʒ/, /t/, /k/, /θ/ and /ð/ were included while in the suprasegmental instruction only the word stress, liaison, assimilation and elision were taken. (because the said segmental and suprasegmental features have been problematic for Pakistani English speakers) (Alharbi, 2009; Ghulamullah & Hamzah, 2017; Khan & Qadir, 2012; Malghani & Bano, 2014; Rehman et al. 2012). The subjects of the study were intermediate students of a typical Pakistani semi-urban school (Government Higher Secondary School 188/M Tehsil Hasilpur, District Bahawalpur, Punjab, Pakistan) who had been studying English as a subject for twelve years but they were not taught phonetics formally. The subjects were randomly selected out of 117 students who were equal in social status, achievement, grades, English language proficiency and age. However, the subjects were only male

students because it was not possible to make groups consisting of both male of female students of that age due to religious and social restrictions. In Pakistan, coeducation is permitted only at university level and primary level of education. The study consisted of two groups; one group of seventeen students was served with the explicit instruction: sound segmentation, blending of phonemes, metalevel knowledge of phoneme, sound matching, sound isolation, sound addition, deletion and sound substitution and uptake and practice while the other group which also had seventeen students, was served with the implicit instruction: repetition, extensive speaking practice, picture description and skill and drill.

The study was conducted in the non-native context in Pakistan which lies in the second outer circle in English speaking countries. The results of the study might be generalized to the locality where the study was carried out. However, the generalization can be applied to any non-native context with modification in the learning model replication.

1.9 Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into five chapters. Chapter One is the introduction of the current thesis that includes background of the study, objectives of the study, hypotheses of the study, statement of the problem, theoretical background of the study, significance of the study, delimitations of the study, definition of the terms and summary of Chapter One. Chapter Two is related to the Literature review where independent and dependent variables (intelligibility, comprehensibility, the explicit instruction and implicit instruction) of the study have been looked through the previous researches. Chapter

Three is about the methodology of the current study which comprises paradigm of the study, procedure of sampling, research design, instrumentation, manipulation, data collection plan and summary of the chapter. Chapter Four includes findings and discussions while Chapter Five expresses the conclusions and recommendations.

1.10 Definition of the Terms

Phonetics

In a general, phonetics is an autonomous science of sound production related to human beings but it is also one of the broad subfield of applied linguistics that focuses on the speech sounds: its production, articulation, perception and representation. Kelly (2001) explains that phonetics is study of speech sounds when speech organs move to produce sounds, which travel in sound waves, which are received by ears and transmitted to brain.

Intelligibility

Intelligibility is a feature of the uttered words by a speaker to make them understandable. Kenworthy (1988) defines “intelligibility is being understood by a listener at a given time in a given situation”. Whitehill et al. (2012) think that it is the extent of accuracy by a speaker that transmits a set of oral intended utterances. Contrary to what is stated above, Kent (2004) argues that intelligibility is an ability of listener to comprehend acoustic signals. Kirkpatrick (2010) agrees that it is the ability of a listener of recognizing words. Isaacs (2014) also adds that the intelligibility is attribute of listener or property of a listener rather than a speaker. It is referred to a degree to which a listener understands a

speaker. So, according to some researchers, intelligibility is a speaker's as well as listener's ability.

However, Gilakjani (2012), Nelson (1993), Saito (2011) and Field (2005) argue that intelligibility is a state of speaker to be intelligible by another speaker. In the current study, intelligibility was meant only a feature of a speaker to be understood that is related to speech sounds.

Comprehensibility

Comprehensibility refers to listener's ability to apprehend the meaning of words and utterances and to understand utterance in meaning and the rate of difficulty and easiness (Koike, 2014; Piske, 2012; Sewell, 2016; Singh, 2009). It is an experience of a listener in the estimation of difficulty in understanding utterance (Munro, 2008) and "knowing the meaning of the expression" (McKay, 2002, p. 52).

Implicit instruction

The implicit instruction means creating an environment in which learners achieve targets without drawing their explicit attention (Ellis et al. 2009). It is systematic in the enriched context with the supportive materials to achieve language skills. It includes the elicited imitation, modeling, recasting and increased focus assimilated in real communicative activities with minimum intervention (Finestack, 2007; Pawlak, 2013). It discards the metalanguage learning approach and encourages real communicative situations.

Explicit instruction

In the explicit instruction, some kind of selected rules are being considered for learning in advance (Ellis et al. 2009; Pawlak, 2013; Ritchie & Bhatia, 2009). It is a metacognitive approach in which learners deliberately follow some rules and isolated forms with an awareness and explanation through an organized practice. It can be done deductively (providing a rule and using it practically) or inductively (letting the learners to find out rules themselves which they think more effective). It includes systematic presentation of rules and language forms to learn a language.

Segmental feature

Segment refers to the term used in linguistics primarily for a “discrete unit that can be identified, either physically or auditorily, in the stream of speech”. It is a linguistic unit (a sound in an utterance or a letter in a written text) in a sequence that can be separated from a sequence and which is identifiable in itself (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). “A feature which begins or ends within one of the phases of articulation of a segment is called a suprasegmental feature” (Crystal, 2008, p. 426)

Suprasegmental feature

Suprasegmental features refer to more than one segment which can be categorized as pitch, stress, intonation and quantity to convey the sentence-level meanings pragmatically and linguistically. Sometimes pitch, stress and quantity happen to be a single segment and they do not qualify the stated definition (Lass, 2012). Therefore, suprasegmental feature can be differentiated from segments with reference to sequence. They cannot be identified in isolation of other items such as segment that is inspected itself.

1.11 Summary

This chapter discussed intelligibility comprehensibility as an international and a local problem in the Pakistani context. It also defined that Intelligibility is a speaker's' ability to be understood while comprehensibility is a recognition of meaning of words. This chapter included the detail about Pakistani English (PE) that is considered as a separate genre of World Englishes yet, it is unable to fulfil the communication requirement locally and internationally. It debated that pronunciation is neglected all over the world where Pakistan is not an exceptional case. It talked over the reasons which are responsible for marginalizing teaching pronunciation in Pakistan. The first reason is the difference between the segments of Pakistani languages and English. This situation confuses Pakistani English speaker in distinguishing sounds of the both languages. The second reason is that English teachers are usually incompetent in communication skills especially in speaking and listening, untrained in their related field and resource less. The third reason is that materials for teaching English is rarely published in Pakistan. Most of the books related to ELT are published by the foreign publishing companies and these books are too expensive as compared to the local market rates. All these books are void of teaching of pronunciation materials. The fourth reason is that there is no single methodology that can be followed to make teaching pronunciation better. The fifth one is the main hurdle in the improvement of teaching pronunciation is Pakistani examination system whose washback effects promote rote-learning and marks oriented educational environment. This chapter provided the evidence that the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction has positive effects on intelligibility and comprehensibility. It

also comprised the current study's purpose that was to find out whether the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction can change the Pakistani pronunciation in a better way. It also provided the foundations for the study that the explicit instruction has not only been supported by a single theory but also many theories such as Behaviorism, Cognitivism, Nativism and Sociocultural theory, for example, supported the current study.



CHAPTER TWO LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter includes the literature review where independent and dependent variables of the study have been discussed through the previous researches. The variables of the study comprise intelligibility, comprehensibility, the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction, implicit instruction, comparison between the explicit and implicit instruction and metacognitive approach.

2.2 Intelligibility

The notion of intelligibility came into existence in the pronunciation teaching in 1949 but it could not be adopted practically. In 1970s, the ELT teachers felt that achieving native-like pronunciation is impractical, laborious, and potentially preclusive. Therefore, they abandoned the traditional methods of the pronunciation teaching and adopted intelligibility as their goal (Field, 2005).

Intelligibility is considered the ability of both speaker and listener. When it is considered the ability of a speaker it refers to the quality of an utterance to be understood (Koike, 2014). In contrast, some writers see it listener's ability of recognizing the words while comprehensibility denotes knowing the meaning of words. Both points of view are discussed below.

Intelligibility is a speaker's ability to be understood by a listeners. Gilakjani (2012) holds that intelligibility is not to be perfect in pronunciation but the utterances should be as

intelligible that can fulfill the needs of communication which a speaker feels during his/her communication. He includes in intelligibility “increased self-confidence, and the speech monitoring abilities and speech modification strategies” (2012, p. 119). The perfect intelligibility and comprehensibility is possible only by a native speaker and to achieve the native-like pronunciation is not a compulsion for an international learner. Nelson (1993) defines intelligibility as a purposeful response in speaking skills which means, it is ability of a speaker for purposeful communication. Whitehill et al. (2012) think that it is the extent of accuracy by a speaker who transmits a set of oral intended utterances (Alatis, 1993) and his ability of being understandable "at a given time in a given situation" (Kenworthy, 1988, p. 13). Saito (2011) explains that the explicit awareness of some specific segments will make impact on learners’ “overall intelligibility of their English speech so that NE listeners can comprehend them without much effort” (p. 48). From the Saito’s definition it is clear that intelligibility is an ability of a speaker while comprehensibility is related to a listener’s ability to comprehend the meaning of words. Field (2005) restricts intelligibility to the “features of speech signals. As used here, it refers to the extent to which the acoustic-phonetic content of the message is recognizable by a listener” (p. 401). From the above discussion, it is clear that intelligibility is principally a quality of a speaker.

After all, intelligibility is an attribution related to a speaker that how much a speaker can be understood by a listener while comprehensibility is the ability of a listener to give meaning to the words he/she listens (Alatis, 1993; Gilakjani, 2012; Kenworthy, 1988; Nelson, 1993; Saito, 2011; Whitehill, Gotzke, & Hodge, 2012). In the current study, intelligibility has been defined as a feature of speaker how much he is intelligible or

understandable to a listener while comprehensibility is related to a listener's ability to give meaning to words.

Contrary to the forgoing explanations, Kent (2004) argues that intelligibility is an ability of a listener to comprehend the acoustic signals. Kirkpatrick (2010) and Sewell (2016) support the notion of Kent (2004) that intelligibility is the ability of a listener of recognizing words and utterances. Richards and Schmidt (2010) define intelligibility:

“The degree to which a message can be understood” and it is “the listener's ability to predict parts of the message, the location of pauses in the utterance, the grammatical complexity of sentences, and the speed with which utterances are produced” (p. 289).

Levis (2006) and Koike (2014) too argue that intelligibility is an ability of a listener to understand utterance and it is very close to comprehensibility.

From the above mentioned definitions it can be concluded that intelligibility is initiated by a speaker to be comprehended by a listener, so, intelligibility is a mutual interaction between a speaker and a listener (Smith and Nelson (1985).

2.3 Comprehensibility

Comprehensibility refers to the ability to understand meaning in utterance and the rate of difficulty and easiness (Piske, 2012). It is an experience of a listener (Munro, 2008) in the estimation of difficulty in understanding utterance and “knowing the meaning of the expression” (McKay & Sandra McKay, 2002, p. 52). Comparing intelligibility and comprehensibility, it can be said that intelligibility is conveying of the spoken words by a

speaker while comprehensibility is understanding the meaning of these spoken words. Sometimes a word is understandable but has different meaning in different context. For example, the “head” has two meaning as a part of body and a main part of something, organization or system. Thus, comprehensibility is assigning proper meaning to a word according to the context.

2.4 Intelligibility and Comprehensibility through Researches

Some researches were carried out to know how intelligibility is perceived by different listeners at different levels. However, the current study examined how the level of intelligibility and comprehensibility can be changed via different mode of instruction. Beinhoff (2014) conducted research on the perception about accentedness and intelligibility: how the German and Spanish English speakers perceived the different levels of proficiency about accentedness and intelligibility according to the criteria of Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The researcher investigated the question: Do the non-native speech levels of proficiency in the L2 (English) have an influence on how accentedness and intelligibility are perceived? The study was a causal comparative correlational research to see the cause-effect relationship. Six groups were made to collect the data. One group consisted of four Spanish speakers and five groups of listeners were made from the Spanish, German and Native English who had different levels of proficiency. One group of the listeners was Spanish with the master level of proficiency and another Spanish group was at intermediate level. Likewise, there were two German groups with the masters and

intermediate levels. The fifth group was the Native English speakers of intermediate level. There were two dependent variables: accentedness and intelligibility and two independent variables: the L1 effects and the level of proficiency in English (referring to the current study, L1 transfer effects cause unintelligibility and incomprehensibility of Pakistani English language speakers because L1 transfer effects halt the acquisition of L2).

The speeches of the Spanish speakers group were recorded through a digital recorder. From these speeches, 32 short utterances were isolated by the software “Audacity”. These utterances were played on a laptop. Firstly, to measure the actual intelligibility, the groups of listeners were asked to transcribe the recordings exactly what they had listened to and rate them using 7-point Likert scale (from 1 = “no accent”; 7 = “extremely strong accent”). In the current study Likert scale was also used to measure intelligibility. Secondly, to measure the perceived accentedness, they were again asked to listen to the recordings carefully and to rate these recordings according to the distinctive features of the accent. Then these ratings were analyzed through ANOVA to see the significance of difference among the results. The results showed that the Spanish and German intermediate listeners perceived the Spanish speaker 1 easy to be understood, in intelligibility while the Spanish and German masters level listeners perceived the Spanish speaker 1 difficult to be understood. Conversely, in the transcriptions of the recordings, the Spanish and German masters level listeners faced few problems in intelligibility. From this analysis, it can be concluded that the L1 effects can make the perception of intelligibility easy but these effects may not influence the actual intelligibility. The levels of the proficiency in L2 also makes difference in L2 intelligibility.

The above stated study was well versed in the norms of research methodology. The raters assessed the speakers' intelligibility using Likert scale. The sampling of the study was based on the homogeneity of the participants. The analysis of the results were technically perfect to prove or disprove the research hypothesis. The study was a causal comparative correlational study that proves that there may be a correlation between the dependent variable and independent variables but in uncontrolled settings because these uncontrolled settings is a phenomenon of the past. The results of such kind of studies are less reliable as compared to the pure experimental research in their generalizations.

The current study was a pure experimental where all the variables were controlled and subjects were given a treatment to see the difference among the variables. However, some techniques of the said study were similar to the current study. For example, speeches of the participants were recorded and rated manually by the raters (two professors from a well known university) after listening to the recordings using Likert scale. Similarly, in the current study, the speeches of the subjects were recorded in digital recorder and were rated manually by the human raters. The Beinhoff's study proved that L1 transfer effects can change the level of intelligibility and this is one of the reasons to carry out the current study because, in Pakistan, local languages transfer their negative effects in the learning of L2.

Another causal comparative study was conducted by Kim (2008) who focused on four features of speech: accentedness, intelligibility, comprehensibility and interpretability. He conducted his research in USA. The hypothesis of the study was "the ESL students' negative attitudes were the result of reduced intelligibility and interpretability of NNESTs' (non-native English speaking teachers) foreign-accented speech" (p. 11). In his

research, Kim (2008) claimed that “intelligibility” is related to a listener’s recognition of words, “interpretability” is associated with listener’s recognition of meaning of a word or intent, “comprehensibility” refers to listeners’ perception about the difficulty in understanding a word, and “accentedness” means the foreign accent that marks a speaker as non-native English speaker. However, in the current study, intelligibility is identified as an ability of a speaker to be understandable, while comprehensibility is related a listener to give meaning to the words. The sample of the study was 4 participants from each English, Spanish, Japanese, and Korean female speakers to get a speech stimuli. Forty ESL students: 22 male and 18 female were selected as listeners from different nationalities with different levels of English proficiency. The data was collected by two methods: questionnaire and the recorded speech stimuli. The information about the attitudes of listeners regarding NNESTs was gathered through questionnaire and the recorded listening of four participants were rated by the listeners. In both of the methods, quantitative data was collected using 5-point Likert scale and 9-point Likert scale respectively. This scale was also used in the current study to assess the intelligibility of the subjects of the study. The findings of the Kim’s study showed that intelligibility, comprehensibility and interpretability were not negatively affected by the non-native accent because, overall all, the listeners indicated the NNESTs’ accent was understandable. However, all the listeners were agreed upon that all the ESL teachers should speak with a native accent because they come USA to study in a native accent.

This study was a complicated with various variables which were too difficult to be measured at the same time. Although, the hypothesis of the study was rejected, yet its

findings were outstanding to remove the prejudice against non-native English speaking teachers.

Furthermore, Kim (2008) seemed confused about the definition of intelligibility. He claims “in this study, the term intelligibility was restricted to listeners’ recognition of words” but formulating the hypothesis he says “the ESL students’ negative attitudes were the result of reduced intelligibility and interpretability of NNESTs’ foreign-accented speech” and again he writes “the ESL students to assess intelligibility of the speakers”. There is contradiction as he intended to define “intelligibility” as a listener’s ability but in his hypothesis and in the second statement, he admits that intelligibility is an ability of a speaker. Therefore, it can be said that Kim (2008) himself was confused about concept of intelligibility.

Contrary to the discussed above study, in the current study, intelligibility is related to speaker’s ability to be understood by a speaker. Still, some of the procedures of the collection of the numerical data of the stated study was similar to the current study. The recordings of the speech were rated manually using 9-point and 5-point Likert scale.

2.5 The Explicit Instruction as a Metacognitive and Metalinguistic Approach

Many researchers such as Cunningham (1990), DeBoer (2003), Ellis (2012), Tracey and Morrow (2012), McCune and Alexander (2014), Hacker, Dunlosky, and Graesser (2009), Koda (2005), Wilson and Conyers (2015), Mather, et al. (2009) and Wegerif et al. (2015) interlink the explicit instruction with metacognitive and metalinguistic strategies with the claim that these strategies are positively effective in language learning. The explicit

instruction refers to the approach which proposes that teachers and learners are clearly aware of learning plan what are its details, how it will be organized when, and how this plan will be carried out and what kind of strategies will be useful in attaining the outcomes (Tracey & Morrow, 2012). The learners are well trained and instructed regarding the targets and outcomes. The explicit instruction comprises practices of metacognitive skills (learners' practices for construction of knowledge by metacognitive understanding), knowledge about clear goals and self-thought learning techniques with comprehensive presentations and demonstrations by a teacher.

Wilson and Conyers (2015) provide evidence that the idea of metacognitive approach is not a new but it has been being used since ages even the great Greece philosopher like Socrates believed in the efficacy of conscious engagement of thinking techniques to enhance learning. Socrates claimed that knowledge comes from within man and he urged his students to utilize their thinking that is now called "questioning". Wilson and Conyers (2015) claim that the great British philosopher John Locke (one of the finders of Behaviorism) and Flavell supported the idea that we can get knowledge by the reflection about our experiences and the things in the world around us. Furthermore, Jean Piaget's (1969) cognitive theory, on which the foundations of constructivism were laid, exacerbates that a child learns by his thinking process at different stages. Vygotsky presented the idea of connection between speech and thought and that conscious skill of higher-order thinking is obligatory for development of knowledge (Lloyd & Fernyhough, 1999). Feuerstein like his predecessors presented the notion of learning by reflection and presented the Social Interactionist Theory underpinned by mediated learning experience "learn how to learn" (Gray & MacBlain, 2012). Recently many studies from descriptive

to experimental researches regarding effectiveness of the metacognitive practices have been conducted for the slow learners and the gifted students (Keeves & Watanabe, 2003).

Metacognition itself must be instructed explicitly so that learners should be gradually responsible for their own learning. It will be started from the awareness of a teacher himself regarding metacognition in the sense of its real spirit where, when, why and how it will be used (Tracey & Morrow, 2012). First, teacher will think aloud the techniques then learner will be briefed how to think to learn thinking about learning strategies.

Metacognition in education involves the process of one's thinking: think how to think about learning activities. For example, when one person starts a task, he starts thinking about that task that what is the task, how it will be carried out, why he will complete that task and what would be the outcomes after the completion of that task (Mather et al. 2009). He evaluates the methods, techniques, available resources: their efficacy, validity and reliability regarding that tasks. To answer these questions by himself using his thinking abilities is all about metacognitive approach.

McCune and Alexander (2014) suggest some prerequisites for metacognitive practices that teacher should initiate by the following steps:

- a. *Direct explanation:* The teacher will explain every particular of the plan in detail.
- b. *Modeling:* The teacher will present a model for self-reflection and will think aloud to his or her students.
- c. *Guided Practice:* The students will practice the metacognitive strategies under the guidance of their teacher with his or her feedback.

- d. *Application:* The students will be provided multiple opportunities to start the application of the strategies by themselves.

McCune and Alexander (2014) describe that metacognition is a conscious process of one's own control over thinking and mental abilities for successful studentship. The students should be adept in the utilization of the following metacognitive strategies:

- a. *Determining the objectives:* Why is the task important? What are its benefits?
What are the objectives of this task?
- b. *Planning for the task:* How can I achieve the objectives? What are the resources available for carrying out the task? How much time is required for the completion of the task?
- c. *Strategies to be used:* What kind of methods will be helpful in attaining the targets? What are the strategies which were beneficial in previous tasks and whether they fit this task too?
- d. *Self-monitoring:* The students monitor themselves and their learning task procedure. Whether it is going to wrong direction or it is on the track? All the components of the plan are running well according cost and time limitation?
- e. *Self-evaluation:* The students themselves evaluate their plan regarding all kind of constituents. What was expected and what has been gained? What method was more useful than the other method and why? Are the objectives going to be achieved and to what extent?
- f. *Self-feedback:* The students after self-assessment of their plan provide self-provided feedback. What are the strong points of the plan and what are the shortcomings? What are the remedies and suggestions for the next plan? Whether

the plan should be replicated or the many of the objectives are achieved and there is no need of replication.

Parallel to the metacognitive approach in general education, is metalinguistic approach which is specific and confined to the reflection about language learning. It can be said that when metacognitive approach is applied in the language learning domain it will be called “metalinguistic approach”. It is, actually, a language pragmatics and metapragmatics that studies a language beyond the old concept of language creation (Matamala, 2010). It is an ability to recognize the explicit representations of the abstract sets of linguistic rules, to scrutinize and operate different language forms (Koda, 2005). Linguistic awareness refers (Roehr & Ganem-Gutierrez, 2012) to the conscious explicit knowledge of a learner about the language he is going to learn deliberately.

Venkatagiri and Levis (2007) argue that metalinguistic approach is a heart of second language acquisition. They (2007) further contend that there are three approaches which have been used in language classroom: the non-interventionist approach, the “focus on formS” (p. 264) and the focus on form. In the first approach, the focus on form is not paid where L2 is learnt through mimicking of L1 form and language practice without the explicit knowledge of form. The second approach is traditional one where the predetermined syllabus of structures such as grammar points, vocabulary items, or language functions, is rehearsed. This approach has been occupying a standard approach status in teaching of pronunciation. The third approach (the explicit instruction), the attention on form is paid but in a different way that the affecting resources are assigned, the difference (noticing the gap) between input and output is provided through feedback and conscious awareness regarding L2 development is necessitated. Consequently, such

kind of instruction develops a metalinguistic knowledge about pronunciation, what Venkatagiri and Levis (2007) call “phonological awareness—that is, conscious knowledge of the sounds, syllable structure, phonotactics and prosody of the target language” (p. 265).

It can be briefly said that metacognitive approach is a self-controlled learning where learners are aware of objectives, content, methodology and assessment of their learning process in advance. Learners think how to learn and they themselves control all the learning process under the guidance of a teacher. This not a new approach but this approach has been used since ages. It is a gradual process from getting awareness to completion of the learning project. In language learning, metalinguistic approach is used alternative to metacognition. In metalinguistic approach, learners learn language using meta-level techniques. This approach is also an important feature of explicit instruction as it is stated above and it has been utilized in the current study to teach the segments and suprasegments of English language.

2.6 The Explicit and Implicit Phonetic Instruction

The term “phonetic instruction” comprises two words “phonetic” and “instruction” which are used in different disciplines. Phonetic is actually derived from phonetics that is one of main disciplines of linguistics. It deals with sound production and perception: articulatory, auditory, acoustically and perceptually. The word instruction means the advice or information that is provided to do something. However, in this study “phonetic instruction” is used as a target term coined for the study. Thus, here phonetic instruction

refers to the information regarding segmental features of speech that are important to explain necessary components of this study. In English language due to dissimilarities between the letters of words and their sounds, the necessity of phonetics is indispensable in teaching of pronunciation.

Ellis (2012) puts that in contrast with the explicit instruction, in the implicit instruction, learners infer rules unconsciously that the intervention is based on the tasks where any linguistic inquiry arises naturally not directly by the directed rules based on the intervention. It involves the provision of learning context that is enriched with the target objectives without conscious knowledge where learners do not have intentions directly to achieve the targets explicitly (Ellis et al. 2009). Consequently, they acquire the fundamental rules subconsciously and unintentionally. Therefore, the implicit instruction is an indirect intervention where specific targets regarding grammatical structures are set but they are not marked by learners.

A vivid comparison between the explicit instruction and implicit instruction is done by De Graaff and Housen (2009) in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1

Comparison between the Implicit and Explicit Instruction

<i>The Implicit Instruction</i>	<i>The Explicit Instruction</i>
1 Attracts attention to language form	Directs attention to language form
2 Language serves primarily as a tool for communication	Language serves as an object of a study
3 Delivers spontaneously and incidentally (in an otherwise communication-oriented activity)	Predetermined and planned (as the main focus and goal of a teaching activity)
4 Non-obtrusive (minimal interruption of communication of meaning)	Obtrusive (interruption of communication of meaning)
5 Presents target forms in context	Presents target forms in isolation
6 No rule explanation/directions to attend to forms to discover rules: no use of metalanguage	Use of rule explanation/directions to attend to forms to discover rules: use of metalinguistic approach
7 Encourages free use of target form	7. Involves controlled practice of target form

The implicit instruction includes skill and drill and story listening. Cunningham (1990) used these methods in her experimental study in which there were two experimental groups and one control group. First, the experimental group was manipulated with skill

and drill, segmentation, blending (the program was designed to teach phonemic awareness via reading) and the second experimental group was treated with metalevel approach. In this approach, the following steps were adopted: 1. Specific goals were conveyed explicitly and discussed. 2. The previous lesson was reviewed in relation with this program. 3. The learners were told how to apply the skill with examples. 4. The students were told the benefits of the skill. 5. The teacher presented a model lesson to the students. The control group only listened to the story and the learners were asked the questions regarding the story. The students discussed the story. The duration of the study was identical for all the groups.

Ellis (2009) puts that in the implicit instruction learning environment is enriched with task based teaching and with the resources, activities, practices for learning of language.

Papachristou, (2011) also conducted an experiment on three groups two experimental and one control groups. One experimental group received the explicit instruction such as:

“Listen and repeat, sound maze, vowel discrimination activities, cued dialogues, categorisation activities, bingo, information gap activities, chain drills, role plays and student generated limericks” (p. 373).

The second experimental group received the treatment of the implicit instruction: recasts, (the reformulation of the learner’s immediately preceding erroneous utterance while maintaining his or her intended meaning, Papachristou, 2011, p. 343) and extensive speaking practices on various topics.

Cunningham (1990) explores the effects of the explicit phonemic instruction on the reading skill. Her study focuses on Kindergarten and the first grade students at Midwest

suburban metropolitan area in USA. She finds that understood methods in phonetics instruction are causally related to the reading ability. She further argues that the correlational studies could not be sufficient in finding out the true causes related to reading skills but an experimental study is needed. The study provides the comparison between “drill and skill” and conceptual or metacognitive awareness of phonemic instruction. The explicit instruction and metalevel approach in phonemic awareness was the independent variable. While the dependent variable was comprehension in reading skills.

Three groups were made out of 42 Kindergarten first grade children: two experiment groups and one control group. The groups were treated two times in a week for 10 weeks. The first experimental group received the explicit instruction: phoneme deletion, phoneme oddity and phoneme discrimination and the “drill and skill” was administered to the second group. The control group was trained via listening stories with series of questions. Each group was pretested and posttested. The Lindamood Auditory Conceptualization Test (LAC) was used to differentiate among the sounds and to analyze the number and order of sounds. To see the phonological awareness, the oddity phonological rhyme task was used. In which the initial, medial and final matching words were compared. To see the effects of the independent variable the results of the groups were compared by analyzing their means. Actually, one group was manipulated with the explicit instruction while the other two groups were intervened with the implicit instruction. Thus, this study is similar to the current study that one group received the explicit instruction and the other group received the implicit instruction.

This study is a vivid evidence of utility of metacognitive approach where the first experimental group was trained explicitly to perceive where, when, why and how a phoneme is used. Although, the results of study were not coherent with the hypothesis that "phonemic awareness is just consequence of learning to read" yet it provided the effects of instruction on reading ability and presents the results that the phonemic instruction enhances reading skills. This also affirms that the training prior to the study improved the kindergarteners' proficiency in phonemic awareness. It means that in EFL countries where oral and aural skills are ignored, the attention to pronunciation can also be helpful in other than the focused skill (reading).

This study was meant to prove or disapprove that the "phonemic awareness is just consequence of learning to read" (Phonemic awareness is the capacity to recognize individual sounds as segments). The results of the study indicate that the reading ability could not influence the phonemic awareness but phonemic awareness improved reading ability. Therefore, phonemic awareness is not just a consequence of reading but good reading might be the influence of phonemic awareness. The results of the study also showed that the phonemic awareness was helpful in improving the reading skills and that the training prior to the study made the subjects proficient in the recognition of phonemic awareness. The Cunningham (1990)'s study supports the idea of the current study about the training (one of the components of metalevel approach) of the subjects before starting the study and it was also similar in research design to some extent. However, this study is different in some ways that it was carried out in a native atmosphere on the native English children of the first grade and its results cannot be applied to the non-native settings because in the non-native settings, the first grade student are not able to

understand phonemes of English. Furthermore, many studies (Papachristou, 2011; Rahbar et al. 2013; Saito, 2011) were conducted about the explicit instruction, were related to the adult learners who could understand rules better than the young learners do.

Abshire (2006) carried out research regarding the effects of the explicit and implicit phonemic instruction on reading ability of Kindergarten students in an urban elementary school located in the southern section of Lafayette, Louisiana. Two classes were selected out of 7 classes as Group A and Group B from the school as a purposive sampling for the intervention. Every group consisted of 14 subjects. It was a six week experimental research in which the independent variable was a teaching of the book "Phonemic Awareness in Young Children" (Abshire, 2006, p. 48) with the explicit instruction for group A and the implicit instruction for group B while the dependent variables were "letter naming fluency (LNF), phoneme segmentation fluency (PSF) and nonsense word fluency (NWF)" (p. 83). Here explicit instruction is taken as the teacher's direct link between letter and sound and the subjects' reflection on the expansion of phonemic awareness presented in the book whereas the implicit instruction refers to the strategy in which the teacher did not make connection between letter and sound. The comparison between letters and sounds was accomplished in the current study too.

The instrumentation was pentagon with an eclectic approach. The standardized test "The DIBELS (Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills" (p. 11) was used as a pretest, mid-test and posttest to get the quantitative data about the phonemic awareness. To obtain the qualitative data the instructors of both the groups and administrative staff of the school were interviewed and the content analysis was conducted of the subjects' cumulative records. A non-participant observation was carried out by the researcher

herself spending 90 minutes in every group per week. Lastly, a case study of both of the instructors and groups was undertaken. Generally, the aim of the study was to see the difference between the effects of the explicit and implicit instruction and the aim was achieved. The results of the study showed that the explicit instruction caused compelling gains compared to the implicit instruction.

Overall the study was systematic, well organized with true spirit research oriented. The instrumentation was pentagon which was one of the rare cases in usual studies. The multiple methods for data collections made the results of the study valid, reliable and generalizable for the target population. The study was a great effort to investigate the problem. However, there were some limitations of the study.

Firstly, the sampling of the study was purposive or judgment sampling as the researcher explained that it was not possible for her to make two separate groups from the population, which were regular classes and could not be divided. The same was the case with the population of the current study because the selection from different populations was not possible because of regular classes. However, the sampling was randomly carried out in the current study. As far as the study of Abshire (2006) is concerned, actually, it used a convenient sampling to which the researcher names purposive sampling, which is a major source of bias in educational researches, because the researcher has been teaching for 17 years in the school where the study was conducted (Gay et al. 2012). So, she adopted the sampling which was convenient to her. Thus, sampling was not random resulting in unreliable results. The researcher admits that Group A which was instructed explicitly, showed compelling gains and that group's subjects were older than the subjects of Group B. Gay et al. (2012), Marlow (2010) Tavakoli (2013) call this situation the

"selection- treatment interaction" which is threat to the internal validity. This situation interacts with the dependent variable showing outstanding results mistakenly attributed to the independent variable while the results may be the result of some external variable. Therefore, in this study, the external variable (maturation of Group A) already existed and it mostly happens in experimental studies. However, contrary to the Abshire's study, this threat did not exist in the current study because all the subjects were equal in their age, English language proficiency and status, to the great extent.

Secondly, the researcher explained that Group A that received the explicit instruction (connection between letter and sound) showed compelling outcomes. This group was instructed with traditional style, inactive students, teacher-centered, "drill-sergeant" and "all eyes facing forward" (Abshire, 2006, p. 83). Here the style adopted for Group A was not coherent with the explicit instruction because the explicit instruction is a metacognitive approach where learners are encouraged to think about setting of objectives, methods of learning, self-assessment with some extent of autonomy (Ellis et al. 2009; Pawlak, 2013; Ritchie & Bhatia, 2009). The teacher acts as a guide and facilitator. The teacher-centered or teacher-directed style, strict setting where learners are inactive is opposite to the explicit instruction. It seems that the researcher of this study was not clear about the actual nature of the explicit and implicit instruction. However, in the current study the difference between the explicit and implicit was clearly examined for manipulation. The research design of the Abshire's study was similar to the design of current study (two treatment experimental design).

The problems regarding pronunciation and comprehension in Japan are similar to the problems in Pakistan. Saito (2007) mentions these problems in his article that a little

attention is given to the teaching of pronunciation. He conducted a pilot experimental research on 6 adult participants, four for experimental group and 2 for control group with the mean age about 26.7 years using the explicit phonetic instruction as a treatment, prioritizing only one target sound (the low front vowel /æ/) which exists in English but not in Japanese. The study was conducted in the United States on the subjects graduated from Syracuse University. The experimental group was manipulated while the control group was given no instruction. In the intervention, (the instruction regarding /æ/ sound) the subjects used Praat themselves for practice and to analyze their pronunciation level. This is very important component of the explicit instruction that learners are autonomous in their learning process. The study was carried out to know what are the effects of the explicit phonetic instruction on the pronunciation of Japanese learners of English to see its implications and validity for future researches (Tracey & Morrow, 2012).

The study was an experimental research selecting the subjects from 1-4 for the experimental group and from 5-6 for the control group. The sampling can be named as a convenient sampling because the researcher took the subjects conveniently who were available (Cohen et al. 2007). The independent variable of the study was the explicit phonetic instruction for the phoneme /æ/ as dependent variable. The groups were pretested with 20 items of vocabulary words but after one hour treatment another test with the test of 10 items of vocabulary words was given. The same procedure was adopted in the current study for the data collection. Then after one week the groups were posttested with 30 items of vocabulary words. Twenty seconds were selected from the middle of the speech of every participant. The input was fed in Praat to analyze the

required pronunciation level. The results of the study were tabulated through the output from Praat in the shape of spectrograms.

Saito (2007) concludes that the explicit phonetic instruction helped Japanese learner in improving their segmental phonology. The result shows the importance of phonetic instruction in removing the linguistic hurdles of Japanese English learners. Actually, Japanese do not have sound such as front vowel /æ/ of English in their native language. Thus, they have problems in intelligibility while pronouncing this sound. They try to pronounce this sound separating /a and e/.

The study was well organized and the results were rigorously analyzed. The objectives were clear and sound that were achievable. However, the study was a pilot study with the least treatment plan. The design of the study was not according the ethical rules of the research methodology. The numbers of the subjects were too small but acceptable for a piloting research.

The current study was too about the explicit instruction treatment but it was a big project compared to the above study. The phonetic instruction was given about fifteen vowels /æ/, /e/, /ə/, /ɜ:/, /ʊ/, /ʌ/, /a/, /ɒ/, /ɔ:/, /i:/, /ɪ/, /aɪ/, /u/, /ʊə/ and /ɜ:/ and eleven consonants /j/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /g/, /dʒ/, /t/, /k/, /θ/ and /ð/ and four suprasegmental features were also included in the current study. Besides, the current study was conducted on the Pakistani adult learners who were different from the Japanese learners in many aspects.

Later on, Saito (2011) extends his investigation to the eight segmental sounds /æ, f, v, θ, ð, w, l, ô/ which also do not exist in Japanese. The native Japanese English speakers have some L1 features that are hurdles when transfer those sounds in L2 with negative effect

on the compensability of listeners. The study was based on the assumption of the usefulness of segmental-based instruction for adult Native Japanese (NJs) in learning English pronunciation, especially focusing on eight segmental sounds /æ, f, v, θ, ð, w, l, ô/ to form a resilient mental illustrations of these sounds with their ultimate phonetic features. The explicit phonetic instruction about the target phonetic sounds were used as a cause for the effects on accentedness and comprehensibility.

Twenty Native Japanese students with average age of 27.6 years participated in this study who were just arrived in New York for university level study. They were divided into two groups: experimental group and control group according to their age, sex, TOEFL score and the duration of stay in USA. The subjects of the experimental group were informed for the nature of the study (experimental study) and they showed great interest whereas the control group was not intimated with this research program to prevent the demotivation in the control group (this demotivation happens due to the reaction which is called “reactive arrangements” whose detail is provided in Chapter Three under the subheading 3.6.1). Every group was pretested and posttested. Gay et al. (2012) call this situation “reactive arrangements”, when one group perform extraordinarily because it is treated with a special treatment while the other group feels inferiority because of this is not treated like the first one. To avoid this reaction, researchers designed two experimental groups which was also the design of the current study.

The experimental group received treatment of the explicit phonetic instruction for four hours and the control group spent that period in in the library or in the other educational activities. The four hour instruction lasted for four weeks, one hour per week. The instructions were given in English and Japanese.

In this study, the researcher worked at two stages, identification and discrimination. At the first stage, the participants identified the given sound with the description of articulatory organs, their place and manners of articulation, then performed production. At the second stage they compared these sounds with their counterpart Japanese sounds: /æ/ vs /a/, /f/ vs. /ϕ/, /v/ vs. /b/, /θ/ vs. /s/, /ð/ vs. /z/. At last, they were asked to pronounce the English sounds and then the Japanese sounds similar to English sounds. Two strategies were used: controlled practice and communicative practice for the instructional purposes (Lyster, 2007). In the range of the organized activities, the subjects of the study were energetically stimulated to drill at three levels of reading tasks: "(1) segmental-level reading task: (2) word-level reading task: and (3) sentence-level reading task" Saito, 2011, p. 5). In the communicative practice, the participants were provided two pictures for description. The participants were the given corrective feedback to improve the output. They were assessed using two activities: the sentence- reading task and the picture-description task. In the sentence reading task, there were four sentences with 39 words including the target sounds and the other three general sentences were mixed with those four sentences. They were asked to speak out the sentences and were recorded. In the picture-description task, they had to describe the picture in informal talking manners. The same procedure was performed in the current study to assess the intelligibility of the subjects of the current study. Twenty seconds were selected from each sentence and 210 speech parts were assessed by the expert native speakers. These experts used human method for rating on Likert scale "from 1 = no effort to understand to 9 = very hard to understand" (Saito, 2011, p. 7). The obtained results were analyzed by ANOVA.

In the pretest, all the participants showed same results but in the posttest, there was significant difference between both the results of the groups. In the sentence reading, the results showed no significance in accentedness improvement but in comprehensibility there was great improvement. In picture description, there was also no outstanding difference in the results of all the participants. However, the results of the study are significant in the efficacy of the explicit instruction of the specific 8 English sounds in teaching and in enhancing the ability of comprehensible pronunciation of the participants compared to the participants who did not receive any kind of instruction.

The purpose of the study was to improve the pronunciation of the Native Japanese English speakers in accentedness and comprehensibility. To what extent the researcher was successful in obtaining the objectives is unclear. The study was sophisticated in terms of research methodology to some extent. The research was well versed in analysis. Conversely, sampling and designing of the groups of the study were done as conveniently as was in his research piloted in 2007 (Saito, 2007). Additionally, the duration of the intervention was very short, i.e., only four hours.

The current study was again more sophisticated than the stated above study. The duration of the current study was 48 hours with the interventional instruction about 26 segments and 4 suprasegments: liaison, assimilation, word stress and elision. The current study was also related to intelligibility and comprehensibility problems. Saito focused only on eight segments but the current study focused on fifteen vowels /æ, e, ə, ɔ:, ʊ, ʌ, ɪ:, ɪ, aɪ, u:, ɪə and ɜ:/ and eleven consonants /j, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, g, dʒ, tʃ, k, θ and ð/ and four suprasegmental features of English. Thus, the current study was more comprehensive than the Saito's study. However, some of the procedures in the

manipulation and the data collection were similar. For example, for the assessment, 9-point Likert scale was used by human raters as it was used in Saito's study. The data collection instruments in the pretests and the posttests of both of studies were similar.

Papachristou (2011) also conducted research regarding Greek and English vowels to see the effects of the explicit and implicit instruction on the teaching phonetic sounds. The study was based on three hypotheses: "(i) Greek learners will have difficulty in perceiving and producing the English vowels both in quality and quantity. (ii) Greek students will not produce native like L2 vowels. (iii) Explicit pronunciation instruction is expected to have a positive effect on learners' production of English vowels" (p. 372).

It was an experimental research where fifteen students aged 16 were the Thessaloniki monolingual speakers of the Standard Modern Greek who took part in receiving the treatment. The adult learners were selected deliberately to see whether the old learners were able to achieve the targets in pronunciation of L2 because of the notion that old learners lose their ability to get proficiency in L2 pronunciation. The experiment was carried out dividing the learners in to two experimental groups and one control group. Every group consisted of five subjects. One group received the explicit instruction while the other group was treated with the implicit instruction and third group did not receive any thing. All the participants already have studied English as foreign language. The independent variable of the study was the explicit or the implicit instruction while the dependent variable were the English vowels on the Standard American accent, In the current study, there were two experimental groups, i.e., one for the explicit instruction (independent variable 1) and the other for the implicit instruction (independent variable 2) with two dependent variables: intelligibility and comprehensibility. The design of the

current study was alternative to the design of that Papachristou (2011) used in his study (Cohen et al., 2007).

In Papachristou (2011)'s study, the explicit treatment consisted of 29 mini lessons for 15 minutes thrice a week including "listen and repeat, sound maze, vowel discrimination activities, cued dialogues, categorisation activities, bingo, information gap activities, chain drills, role plays and student generated limericks" (Papachristou, 2011, p. 373). The second experimental group received the implicit instruction: recasts, speaking practice on various topic. The groups were pretested with the short sentences embedded with the English and Greek vowels. The same procedure was adopted in the current study. After manipulation, the learners were evaluated by recording their spoken sentences and all the recordings then were analyzed through Praat measuring vowels using wide-band spectrograms.

The results of the study indicated that all the learners felt difficulties in producing native like quality vowels while measuring the quantity it was found that the learners who received the implicit instruction were better than the learners who were served with the explicit instruction. As stated above, two of the three hypotheses were confirmed and the third one that the participants improve their quality of pronouncing vowels but with less fluency or quantity was rejected partially. Technically, the study has flaws in describing the method of selecting the subjects from the population. There was no mention how the subjects were selected and in what numbers.

Although the current study was similar to the above stated study in determining the effects of the independent variable, yet it was an enterprise to see the effects of phonetic

and phonological instruction in the Pakistani context. The subjects were randomly selected and the treatment was manipulated carefully separating the explicit instruction from the implicit instruction. Therefore, the current study was too far away from the pros and cons of the mentioned study in the qualitative perspective. However, this study provided the guidelines for the current study especially in manipulation and assessment.

Koike (2014) prepared some materials to teach the adult Japanese English learner to improve their intelligibility in Japan. Koike (2014) tells that adult Japanese learners have difficulty in the acquisition of L2 because of the phonetic and phonological differences between Japanese and English. Japanese are unable to differentiate the stressed and unstressed syllables because of their L1 influence, which has no such kind of contrastive features. Furthermore, Japanese has not diphthongs, so, Japanese speakers cannot pronounce the English diphthongs collectively but they pronounce them separately. This situation makes Japanese speakers of English learners unintelligible. Koike (2014) had been influenced by the positive effects of the explicit instruction provided by different researches and recommends that her prepared materials should be taught using the explicit instruction due to its positive effects on learning L2 (phonological features) of the adult English learners. She claims that her materials is useful in any context for teaching pronunciation explicitly.

So, the current study like the Koike's (2014) endeavor is a struggle to solve the intelligible problems faced by the Pakistani English speakers. In the Pakistani languages and English language, there are also differences among various sounds that create problems when they cannot become correspond to each other. The researcher of the

current study also prepared a short course for Pakistani English speakers to improve their pronunciation.

Khanbeiki (2015) conducted study to see the effects of the explicit intrusions on teaching consonants (segmental features) in the Irani context. He asserts that there have been debates on the effectiveness of the different teaching approaches that one is more useful than the others are. Therefore, he was in doubt whether the implicit instruction is better or the explicit instruction. For this purpose, Khanbeiki (2015) carried out an experimental study on the intermediate EFL learners. Three groups were made out of 60 students with two experimental groups and one control group. One experimental group was manipulated with special treatment of the explicit instruction and the second group was treated with the implicit instruction. The third one, control group, received nothing. Papachristou (2011) too used this design in his study. The three groups were pretested and posttested with 50 words that had word-initial and word-final consonants clusters. The words during the test were read aloud and recorded. The same procedure was adopted in the current study too. Khanbeiki tells that the tests were scored but did not describe how the test were scored by experts or by some software. However, the results were analyzed though ANOVA in details with the assertion that the explicit instruction was an effective tool in improving consonants learnability of Iranian students. The results of the study indicate that the group who was treated with the explicit instruction outperformed compared to the group who received the implicit instruction and the third group that was the control group of the study could not improve in pronouncing the consonants at all. It means that any way, the instruction was needed to fill the gap in intelligibility. Albeit, all the claims done in the study, the study seems superfluous with the

facts that are not supported by providing references of other researches. Some supporting results of some other studies might have been provided in the study. This kind of trend is inadequate in a research project.

The current study shares the area of research with the above study. However, contrary to the said study, in the current study, all the formal research procedure was adopted with a systematic data collection, proper analysis of results and careful findings procedure.

It can be summarized that explicit phonetic instruction refers to the learning process where some techniques are utilized consciously to learn a language through metacognition, connection, comparison, addition and deletion. While in the implicit phonetic instruction, learners learn language unconsciously via recasting, skill and drill, repetition and imitation. As cited above, many researches have been carried out in various contexts to see the difference between the effects of explicit instruction and implicit instruction. These studies have provided the evidences that explicit instruction proved better in solving intelligibility and comprehensibility problems in English pronunciation. The current study was also meant to find the effectiveness of both the instructions: explicit instruction and implicit instruction but it was carried out in Pakistani context.

2.7 Explicit and Implicit Phonological Instruction

The term Explicit Phonological Instruction is coined as the term explicit phonetic instruction was used in many studies. May be it is first time that this term is used in this study. It does not mean that this concept is new one in language learning but many

writers used different terms pertaining the concept about instruction in phonological features. For example, Machado (2015) named this concept as an “explicit instruction in phonological awareness” (p. 203), Lane and Pullen, (2004) called it mere “phonological awareness” (p. 87) and McGill-Franzen and Allington (2010) termed this conception as an “explicit phonological awareness” (p. 296). Furthermore, some researchers investigated the effects of suprasegmental instruction on the teaching of pronunciation which is discussed in following discussion.

Therefore, the explicit phonological instruction refers to the instruction which is based on the awareness about the rules regarding suprasegmental features: stress, intonation, assimilation, deletion, liaison etc. consciously and deliberately. Here the rules regarding the phonological features are explicitly taught to the learners of English. Contrary to the explicit phonological instruction, in the implicit instruction, the rules are not taught explicitly but the rules are taught through listening, repetition and practice. In other words, an atmosphere that is enriched with the phonological rules, i.e., practices of speaking, listening and watching English videos, is provided to the ESL learners to learn phonological features.

Extending the domain of researches about the explicit instruction in teaching English pronunciation, Gordon et al. (2013) conducted a classroom-based experimental study to see the effects of the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction on the comprehensibility of the second language (L2) learners. They did not focus only on the segmental features of speech in pronunciation teaching but also concentrated on the phonological features. They hypothesized that the explicit instruction in phonetic and phonological features would increase the comprehensibility of L2 learners.

Thirty subjects were selected from three classes of a large university of USA and divided into three groups: two experimental and one control group and they were pretested and posttested. One experimental group received the explicit phonetic instruction while the other experimental group received the implicit instruction for three weeks, 25 minutes a day and 3 days per week (total: 225 minutes of instruction) whereas the control group did not receive any treatment. However, the control group participated in all the activities which were presented to the experimental groups but with the difference that the control group was not instructed explicitly. Experimental Group 1 received the treatment in the explicit phonological instruction and the experimental Group 2 was intervened with the implicit instruction. The similar design was used by Papachristou (2011)'s study but in the current study there were only two experimental groups one received the explicit instruction where the other received the implicit instruction. In the Gordon et al (2013)'s study, the phonetic and phonological instruction strategies included:

Visual aids ,oral introduction of topic Bottom-up skills, analysis, recognition & discrimination minimal pair drills, reading short passages, top-down skills, fluency activities, pair discussion, group discussion, role-plays, information-gap activities (Gordon et al., 2013, p. 197).

The target sounds /i, ɪ, æ, ʌ/ or stress, rhythm, linking, reductions were presented with 24 loaded sentences and the speeches of the groups were recorded for the pretest and 48 (24 sentences of the pretest and 24 new sentences) sentences for the posttest and those sentences were transcribed and analyzed. The recorded sentences were rated by the native speakers who were graduate students in linguistics and language teaching using a 9-point

Likert scale. This scale was also used in the current study to assess the intelligibility of the subjects.

The inter-rater reliability coefficient was calculated. The subjects showed equal performance in the pretest items (24 items were of the pretest) but in the posttest, they differed in their performance. Finally, the results proved the hypotheses that the explicit instruction was more effective in enhancing the comprehensibility of L2 learners than the traditional methods. Additionally, it was evident that the results of the group who received phonological explicit instruction were better than the other two groups: the group who received the implicit phonological instruction and the group who did not receive any kind of instruction.

The study was conducted according to the prerequisites and requisites of the research methodology. Contrariwise, to the other researches, it focused on segmental and suprasegmental features of the speech as an intervention for comprehensibility. Given that the study faced mortality problem (different participants drop out of the study in different numbers, altering the composition of the treatment groups. Gay et al. 2012, p. 255), as the subjects dropped out (from 4 to 10 subjects in each group) but the findings of the study were very significant that phonological instruction proved more effective in improving the comprehensibility than the phonetic instruction or segmental instruction (Gay et al. 2012). By the findings of the above mentioned studies, it can be concluded that the explicit phonetic or segmental instruction might be more effective in enhancing intelligibility and the phonological explicit instruction might be more effective in improving comprehensibility (Pickering, 2006). Such kind of trend may lead to the study

to see the difference between the effects of phonetic instruction and phonological instruction on intelligibility and comprehensibility separately.

The current study is similar to Gordon et al.'s (2013) study in respect of two independent variables: phonetic instruction and phonological instruction but differs in dependent variables as the current study focuses on both linguistic features intelligibility and comprehensibility while they were engrossed in only comprehensibility. Thus, in the current study, the comparison were between the dependent variables were as under:

1. The posttest of Group A intelligibility versus the posttest of Group B intelligibility.
2. The posttest of Group A comprehensibility versus the posttest of Group B comprehensibility.

The case of pronunciation in Iran is similar to the other EFL countries where oral skills are ignored. Even the university level students are not able to communicate purposefully as they should do (Rahbar et al. 2013). Keeping in mind the above stated scenario, Rahbar et al. (2013) felt the importance of teaching English pronunciation. They conducted an experimental study to examine the impact of the explicit instruction of suprasegmental feature on listening comprehension. Instructional treatment tailored to one group only while the other did not receive any treatment. The served treatment was the awareness about stressed words to see its effects on listening. Both groups were pretested and posttested. The effects of the manipulation were evaluated by a teacher made test then they were analyzed through t-test to see the difference of the means of the two groups. The findings showed that word stress instruction had striking effects on EFL students' listening ability. This study seems like a pilot study, the procedure is not

provided in detail. However, the current study is more comprehensive and systematic than the Rahbar et al.'s study.

Kashiwagi et al. (2005) conducted research to remove the skepticism whether the explicit pronunciation instruction can be effective in the development of phonological features. Like the situation in Pakistan, they assert, in Japan too little attention is paid to teaching of pronunciation. Even the educated Japanese English speakers face problems in their intelligibility. The study was carried out in a women's university of Tokyo, Japan.

The design of the study was experimental and control group design. The experimental group received one-year treatment with the explicit instruction while the control group was busy in listening, speaking, reading and writing activities. Interestingly, here in this study, both groups received treatment as was in the current study. Only the name of the design of the current study was different from this study. The current study design was two experimental groups design while in Kashiwagi et al.'s (2005) study, the name of the design was experimental and control group design. Usually, in this design one group receives treatment while the control group receives nothing as was in Saito's study (2011) and the control group even did not know about the conducting of the study. Therefore, in Kashiwagi et al.'s (2005) study there was the difference of the names of the groups. Otherwise, in the procedure, every group in both of the studies was manipulated with the treatment explicitly and implicitly.

Each group consisted of 60 subjects who had already studied English for six years. The duration of the study was one year: ninety minutes per week. The explicit instruction included the teaching of articulation, consonants, vowels with "communicative

interactions, discrimination exercises, more global listening activities, peer feedback and self-monitoring exercises” (p. 69). “Pronunciation Plus” written by Hewings & Goldstein (1998) was used as a material. The subjects used dictionary for understanding the transcriptions with metacognitive approach. Their speeches were recorded and rated manually using rating scale from 1-7 point. Seven vowel sounds /a, æ, ʌ, ɔ:, ou, aɪ and ɒ/ were selected for the segmental instruction because these sounds were problematic for the Japanese English speakers. For suprasegmental features, liaison, assimilation, elision/deletion were focused upon. Intelligibility about segments and suprasegments was the dependent variables of the study while the explicit instruction was the independent variable.

The results of the study showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group in the tests. This study is similar, to the great extent, to the current study. Both studies focused on segmental and suprasegmental features where both groups were manipulated with special treatments. The intelligibility of the subjects was assessed manually in both of the studies providing similar results. However, the contexts of the studies were different with the difference in the number of subjects and duration of the studies.

To sum up, Cunningham (1990) saw the effects of the explicit phonetic instruction on reading ability of kindergarten in USA. Saito (2007) conducted pilot study on only one vowel /æ/ instructing the Japanese L2 learners. Then Saito (2011) extended the dependent variables to eight vowels again by teaching the adult Japanese L2 learners. Papachristou (2011) conducted his study about the vowel teaching to the Greek L2 learners. All these researches focused segmental features of speech but Rahbar et al. (2013) focused on

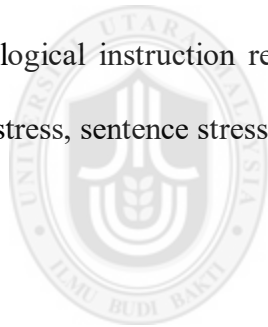
suprasegmental features in the Irani context. However, Gordon et al. (2013) were interested in both the features: the segmental and the suprasegmental phonology in the native English context. Koike (2014) in Japan, prepared materials for the teaching of pronunciation integrated with the explicit teaching approach with the claim that it would be beneficial in multilingual settings. Khanbeiki (2015) tries to remove his doubts regarding the positive effectiveness of the explicit phonetic instruction again in the Irani context.

The current study was similar and different from the above mentioned studies in some aspects. This study focused on 26 phonetic segments as well as some of the suprasegmental features. The segments: monophthongs, diphthongs and consonants and suprasegmental features such as the division of syllables as stressed unstressed syllables, accented or stressed words along with liaison, elision and assimilation were taught explicitly as well as implicitly. It was the first research in the field of phonetics and phonology in the Pakistani context. Additionally, the very important fact was that the metacognitive approach was given attention to promote the learning-centered approach.

2.8 Summary

This chapter discussed the different views of about intelligibility that is considered an ability of a speaker to be understood while comprehensibility is understanding of the meaning of words uttered by a listener. It provided the detail that many studies have been conducted to improve intelligibility and comprehensibility through the explicit phonetic instruction and the implicit phonetic instruction. It talked over the researches which

presented the notion that the explicit instruction is a metalevel approach where learners of language think about their learning's objectives, methodology, materials and assessment. It is conscious rules directed approach where connection between sounds and letters is studied. This chapter discussed that the results of various studies that provided evidence of positive effects of the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction over the implicit phonetic and phonological instruction. It included the detail about the implicit phonetic and phonological instruction which is an unconscious endeavor to improve pronunciation where rules are not heeded upon but pronunciation is learnt by recasting, skill and drill and extensive practices. This chapter summarized the researches' debates that the phonetic instruction includes the study of segments of speech individually and phonological instruction refers to the study of suprasegmental features: syllable stress, word stress, sentence stress, liaison, assimilation, and elision.



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CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter covers the paradigm of the study, the nature of the population, the process of sampling, the framing and the rationale of the design for the study, the execution of the pilot study, the instruments that were used for the data collection, the manipulation or intervening with the independent variables, the procedure of the data collection and the analyses of the obtained data.

3.2 Paradigm of the Study

The nature of problem, the researcher's assumptions and expectations determine the options for paradigms (Chilisa & Preece, 2005; Kanire, 2012). Then, in turn, paradigm decides which methodology is appropriate for the execution of a study, which instruments for measurement are feasible to collect data, and the like. The problem of the current study was to explore whether the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction or the implicit instruction can be a turning point to fill the gap that exists in the field of pronunciation in the Pakistani context. The gap is practical one when Pakistani speakers of English face difficulty in speaking English in their daily life (Bilal, Abdur Rehman, Abdul Rashid, Adnan & Abbas, 2013). This situation makes them unintelligible and incomprehensible in their own context. Moreover, this gap is widened when a foreigner

experiences language based discriminations and racial prejudices in an international context (Derwing & Munro, 2005).

As the nature of inquiry about the current problem was to see the cause effect relationship in the current situation so, the experimental research was suitable to investigate the problem. Nevertheless, in a causal-comparative research, the relationship between cause and effect is also probed of a phenomena of the past where independent and dependent variables are uncontrollable (because they would have happened in a natural settings not in a controlled settings) and a researcher can examine only whether the relationship between the two variables exists (Cottrell & McKenzie, 2010; Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtler, 2010; Martella, Nelson, Morgan, & Marchand-Martella, 2013; Randolph, 2008; Salkind, 2010). The problem of this study was not the part of the past but it was related to the current situation when the study was executed. The experimental research inspects the relationship between treatment and effect in the present situation (Green, Camilli, & Elmore, 2012; Muijs, 2010). Here, the independent variable was manipulated to see the effects on the dependent variables in controlled settings: participants were randomly selected, external variables were controlled, and treatment was given, for example.

Thus, the present study was carried out as a laboratory experimental research (Gay et al., 2012) to see the effects of the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction and the implicit instruction (the cause or independent variable) on the intelligibility and comprehensibility (effect or dependent variable) of the adult second language learners in Pakistan.

3.3 Population

The population of the current study was a cluster: a school of which students were accessible to take as a population. Generally, population can be divided into two categories: target population and accessible population. Target population to which Johnson and Christensen (2013) call the population that consists of people or individuals to which a researcher wants to generalize the results of his study while the accessible population (Gould, 2001) or convenient population, is a cluster of people or individuals which is accessible for a researcher and it is always a subgroup of a target population (Kirkpatrick & Aleamoni, 1983).

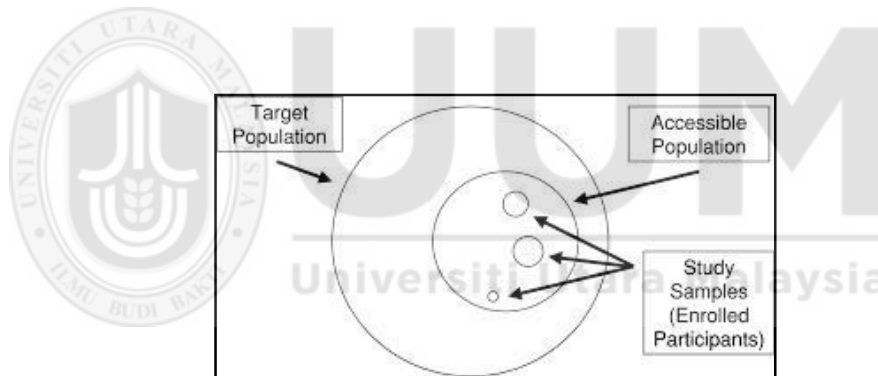


Figure 3.1 The Division of Population

Additionally, Beatty (2016) and Blaikie (2012) describe that the population may be large or small but it depends on the topic or problem to be studied. Thus, the problem of the study "The Effects of Explicit and Implicit Phonetic and Phonological Instruction on the Intelligibility and Comprehensibility: A Study of Teaching English Pronunciation in the Pakistani Context" with its background indicates that problem related to intelligibility and comprehensibility in English pronunciation is very common among the educated persons (from matriculate to postgraduate) in Pakistan (Warsi, 2004). In this case, the problem is

common that includes very large target population and this was not accessible for the researcher. Therefore, the population (117 students) of the current study was accessible population (all the intermediate students of Government Higher Secondary School 188/M Tehsil Hasilpur, District Bahawalpur, Punjab, Pakistan) which was neither an urban nor a rural region. That was a typical public school similar to the target population because the Pakistani public schools have the same aims, objectives, contents, methodology, and evaluation system (Aamer, 2009; Khattak, 2012).

3.4 Procedure of the Sampling

Sampling is a procedure in which a subgroup of a population is selected with the probability of representation of the whole population. Different kind of methods for sampling have been used by researchers such as simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling, stage sampling, cluster sampling, multi-phase sampling, convenience sampling, quota sampling, purposive sampling, dimensional sampling, snowball sampling, theoretical sampling, volunteer sampling (Cohen et al., 2007; Gay et al., 2012).

In this study, the simple random sampling was used to make the groups of the study in a way that names of the whole population were written on the pieces of a paper individually then these pieces of papers were folded and were put in a container or a box. The pieces were jumbled and intermingled. Then the names of the subjects were selected

out of the container until both the experimental groups were made. This method is supported by Cohen et al. (2007).

Two experimental groups of the same size were selected from the population according to their grades, age and facilities, one for the explicit instruction and the other for the implicit instruction. The population was considered homogeneous to a great extent because only the children of middle class take admission in a public school in Punjab, Pakistan. Furthermore, the students who got up to 75% marks in matriculation were enrolled in the first year of the intermediate science classes and were placed in the next class after the summative evaluation according to the criteria given by the government. Every group consisted of 17 students of the intermediate class of the Government Higher Secondary School 188/M Tehsil Hasilpur, District Bahawalpur, Punjab, Pakistan. All the subjects were males approximately same in age from 16 years to 18 years who were enrolled after completion of Matriculation certificate from the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education Bahawalpur, Punjab, Pakistan and they were assumed to have same proficiency level in English to the great extent because all of them studied English for 11 years as a compulsory subject and they had got 70% to 75% marks. They were equal in social status too as they belonged to a semi-urban area. Although, this sample was very small, yet many researchers used small samples in many cases as was in the current study's sample, as in experimental research, the sample should not be smaller than fifteen members (Cohen et al., 2007). The current study used a sample that was a tradition in researches. Abshire (2006) conducted an experimental research making two groups consisting of 14 subjects for each group while Couper (2003) carried out an experimental

research on 15 students, Saito (2007) experimented on 10 subjects making two groups, then again (in 2011) on 20 learners making two groups of 10 participants in each group. Papachristou (2011) conducted a study on 15 subjects dividing them into two groups. In Beinhoff's (2014) study, each group was of 4 subjects, in Kim's (2008) one group was of 18 subjects and in Gordon et al.'s (2013) study each group was of 10 subjects. The above evidence therefore, justified the number of the subjects of the current study.

3.5 Demography of the Subjects of the Study

The demographic details of the subjects of the study are provided in Table 3.1 the study comprised two experimental groups, 17 subjects in each group. The total number of the subjects of the study was 34 who were all males.

All the subjects were 16 to 18 years old studying at intermediate level because it was a regular class, so, all the students were homogeneous in their sex, age, academic level and duration of study at the current institution.

They all had been studying English as a subject for 11 years. However, they all were poor in their oral communication skills because they were not assessed in their oral English skills.

Table 3.1

Demography of the Subjects of the Study

<i>Number</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Level of Study</i>	<i>Length of study in the Present Institution</i>	<i>Faculty</i>	<i>Length of study of English as a subject</i>	<i>Level of oral communication skills</i>
34	Male	16 to 18 years	Under intermediate	1 year & 6 months	Science (Bio)	11 years	Poor

3.6 Design of the Study

Why and which design is suitable for a study, is a very crucial issue. Here is rationale for the selection of the design for the current study. Some writers such as McNabb (2015) and Aparasu and Bentley (2014) consider the design of study at macro level alternative to research methodology. According to them, design is as an overall plan to answer the research questions or hypothesis. Conversely, the majority of the researchers state that a research design refers to the procedure or outline for research questions when designing the stage for an experiment. Johnson and Christensen (2010) and Cohen et al (2007) contend that this is the plan how the groups are assigned to the comparing groups to isolate the independent or dependent variables, how to control the external and internal variables, how to collect the data and how to analyze the results of the different groups. Different writers provide various research designs. Gay et al. (2012) mentions ten types of designs for experimental research whereas Cohen et al (2007) provide the details about 23 designs. Which design will be appropriate for a study depends upon the research context, subjects, duration of a study, cost of research, available resources and the problem of the study. For the current study, the researcher selected "the pretest-post-test two treatment design" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 278) which was also used by Kashiwagi et al. (2005) for his experiments in Tokyo Japan. In this kind of design, two groups were manipulated with the treatment. In the current study, both groups were experimental because one was intervened by the explicit instruction and the other by the implicit instruction. This kind of treatment is called "Placebo effect" whose detail is stated below. Both groups were pretested and posttested. This design can be seen concisely as under:

Experimental₁ RO₁ X₁ O₁

Experimental₂ RO₂ X₂ O₂

(Cohen et al. 2007, p. 278)

The symbol "R" represents random that the subjects were selected randomly, the symbol "O₁" indicates test 1 that the group 1 was pretested then again "O₁" means test 1 that group 1 was posttested, "O₂" means pretest 2 that the group 2 was pretested and the second "O₂" indicates posttest 2 that group 2 was posttested. The symbol "X₁" denotes the treatment 1 given to group 1 and "X₂" denotes treatment 2 given to group 2.

3.6.1 Rationale for Choosing the Two-Treatment Design

Here, question may be raised why this design for the study was chosen or why so many designs are provided by the researchers. The following rationale for choosing "the pretest-post-test two treatment design" will remove all the ambiguities. Gay et al. (2012) contends that "reactive arrangements" (the factors which are linked to the feelings and attitudes of the subjects in the conducting of studies) can mar the internal validity of a study in which subjects feel that they are members of an experimental group and they are receiving a special treatment. This feeling can change the results of a study contrary to the natural settings. This kind of knowledge of the subjects is called "Hawthorne effect" (Craighead & Nemeroff, 2001; Khurana, 2009). Another factor that "reactive arrangements" can produce, is "John Henry effect" in which the subjects or teacher of a control group feel challenging situation competing to an experimental group and they react extraordinarily that they may become too much enthusiastic and motivated (Paulson, 2014; Riazi, 2016). This situation is also a threat to the internal validity of a

research. Consequently, an antidote is provided to control to the "Hawthorne and John Henry effects" by the "Placebo effect" in which all the groups in an experiment should seem to be treated equally so that the internal validity can be maintained avoiding from the negatives effects of the "reactive arrangements". Saito (2011) explains while conducting his study that he made two groups: one experimental group and the other control group. The experimental was treated with a special treatment while the control group was not even informed about the study and the existence of the experimental group to avoid the internal validity threat because "it has been shown that participants tend to become highly unmotivated or motivated if they know that they are in a control group" (p. 49). Thus, in the current study, there were two experimental groups which were equally treated in receiving the special interventions and any group did not feel the sense of superiority or inferiority or any kind of challenging situation that one group becomes highly motivated to face the situation.

3.7 The Pilot Study

Prior to the conducting of the main study, a pilot study was carried out. Ten subjects were randomly selected from the population to make Group A and Group B for the pilot study. Each group consisted of five subjects. The Group A was manipulated with the explicit instruction for learning of schwa /ə/ with the rule that this sound is mostly elided in a weak syllable and that the letters "o" and "e" are also pronounced as schwa /ə/. The five subjects of Group B were taught implicitly only by recasting the pronunciation of the words. (Here a teacher does not provide feedback directly in the correction of the errors made by a learner but he gives feedback indirectly (Bordonaro, 2013). For example, if a

learner says, "horizon /həɪ.zən/" the teacher repeats the phrase "See in the horizon /həɪ.zən/. Did you notice"? Teacher does not correct the error directly but he provides feedback indirectly).

Both groups received instruction explicitly and implicitly for two days: four hours per day (Saito, 2007, manipulated only for four hours) and they were pretested and posttested (see Appendix A and B for tests for Pilot study) to assess the pre and post status of the intelligibility and comprehensibility of the subjects of the pilot study. The same tests were used in pretests and posttests. However, the posttests were conducted after the lapse of one week to avoid the test-retest practice effects (Bachman, 1990). It was planned that the software "Pronunciation Coach" would be used to assess the intelligibility of the subjects. But when it was used the software proved unreliable as it measured the pronunciation with good marks even when the pronunciation was not correct at all. Thus, Likert scale was selected to measure the intelligibility (see Appendix C). This scale has been used by many researchers such as Gordon and Ewert (2013), Harding (2012), Algethami, Ingram and Nguyen (2011), Ruellot (2011), Lima (2011), Derwing and Munro (1997), Munro and Derwing (1998; 1995; 1994).

Likert scale for intelligibility (speaker's ability to be understood) and some part of the IELTS listening test for comprehensibility (listener's ability to understand the meaning of the uttered words) were used. To assess the current ability of intelligibility in the pretest, five words loaded with schwa /ə/ were spoken by the participants and their recording was saved in a computer for the analysis. Hashmi (2012) indicates that the slip and differences of schwa /ə/ is steady feature of Pakistani English. Saito (2007; 2011) also

has used the similar method that the loaded words were pronounced and recorded for rating. While the level of comprehensibility was assessed using the IELTS listening test.

After the intervention, the same procedure was repeated for the posttests. To assess the intelligibility, the recorded words were evaluated by two experts in linguistics of a well-known university using Likert Scale. While measuring comprehensibility, the subjects were given some part of the IELTS listening test. The listening test was assessed manually by the experts using the key answers of that test. The results of both of the groups were analyzed through Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) using independent t-test to see difference between the means of the tests.

The results showed that there were no significant mean differences between the pretests for the intelligibility and comprehensibility of both the groups because p-value was equal to .075 for intelligibility and .567 for comprehensibility ($.077 > 0.05$ and $.567 > 0.05$) which was too bigger than p-value: of 0.05. However, after the intervention, the results of the posttests for intelligibility and comprehensibility showed a significant difference between the means of Group A and Group B that was .011 for intelligibility and .006 for comprehensibility ($.011 < 0.05$ and $.006 < 0.05$) because, here, p-values of both means are less than 0.05. Thus, the stated above results indicate that Group A who received explicit instruction performed better than Group B who received implicit instruction. The results of the pilot study confirmed the importance of the different kind of instructions that were delivered to the groups.

3.7.1 The Pilot Study Benefits

Reilly and Parker (2014) argue that a pilot study enables a researcher to access the sample of study, to solve the ethical issues, to organize materials, to arrange instruments and to see the feasibility of a study. Likewise, in the current study, although it was decided that the population of the study would be a public secondary high school of a semi urban area so that the representation of the Pakistani English speakers might be maintained as much as possible, yet the other issues had to be resolved. The foremost issue was sampling for the study. Was it possible to select a sample from the whole population of the school? Surely, such kind of sampling was not possible to make separate class for an experimentation. The classes were running regularly according to the annual schedule to achieve the targets in the summative examinations.

Thus, the pilot study for the current study determined that the sampling could be carried out from one class. The other issue was to select a computer lab for the study because some materials could be used only through computers. There was also a short fall of electricity and this study was dependent on electronic machines such as computers, software, multimedia, internet and the like. It was the pilot study that fixed all these problems.

Furthermore, while conducting the pilot study, the instrument to measure intelligibility was used. The word “lieutenant” was put in the software "Pronunciation Coach" and one of the subjects was asked to pronounce the word recording his voice in the software. That subject’s intelligibility score was 98%. It meant that the pronunciation of the “lieutenant” was correct to 98%. By the chance, other subject who could not see the word correctly

due to weak eyesight and spoke the meaningless word “sheutenant” and he too scored 96%. The researcher was stunned to see the unreliable results of the tests. Then many other words were tested to see the unreliability of “Pronunciation Coach”. The results proved the unreliability of the software. The situation was very puzzling. Given that the manufacturer of the software claims that the software will:

- Provide a measure of speech intelligibility.
- Provide a measure of audibility.
- Provide a measure of speaking rate.
- Provide example pronunciations of any letter, word, number or sentence.
- Highlight unintelligible and problematic words.

(<http://www.rose-medical.com/speech-intelligibility.html>).

Thus, the researcher had to reconsider the instrumentation. After that, the sounds of the words were recorded and the pronunciation level was rated by two expert raters using 9-point Likert scale. Likert scale has been used by many researchers such as Gordon and Ewert (2013), Harding (2012), Algethami, Ingram and Nguyen (2011), Ruellot (2011), Lima (2011), Derwing and Munro (1997), Munro and Derwing (1998; 1995; 1994). For the assessment of the comprehensibility of the subjects, the IELTS listening test was used.

In the pilot study, the intervention was two of days teaching of five words explicitly and implicitly. The results obtained by the pilot study confirmed the formulated hypotheses of

the study. Thus, the pilot study for the current study proved a milestone to achieve the objectives of the study. The pilot study also indicated that the level of the competence in pronunciation of the subjects of the study was very poor.

3.8 The Legal and Ethical Issues

A researcher can face legal problems, especially when he has intention to intervene with a special treatment. Therefore, American Psychological Association (APA) necessitates an institutional approval prior to conducting a research. Conducting the current research was also a legal issue as well because in the time of conducting research, Pakistan was suffering from political chaos. The attacks on educational institutions made them a very sensitive and vulnerable point. Therefore, the approval for conducting an experiment research was too difficult. No official was ready to grant permission due to security risks. This problem would not have been occurred in a descriptive research in which the interaction between a researcher and participants might be very limited. However, the duration of the current study was two months approximately.

In such sensitive conditions, the researcher made his personal efforts to take the institutional approval. The principal of the related institution was made ensured that no ethical and legal problem that may risk the career of the school management will occur as a result of this experiment. After seeking consent from the school management, another problem was sampling as to make a separate class for experiment was not possible. All the classes were running regularly according to their annual schedule. It was not feasible

to take participants from all the classes. Therefore, taking one cluster as a population of the study was feasible.

The current study was an overt research where a researcher is open and honest to his participants and the respect of participants must be regarded as foremost obligation of a researcher (Dawson, 2002). Consequently, the participants were briefed about the details of the study. Most of the classes were hesitant to participate in the study. However, the second year class of biology was ready to take part in the research. The next problem was to fix time for intervening. All the periods of the classes were busy, so, the time for intervention was made flexible such as one day the researcher took class at 9 am while the next day he took it at 11 am so that the routine of the school could not be disturbed as far as possible.

Furthermore, in the beginning, the participants were enthusiastic but with the passage of time, they started to feel uninterested in the study because teaching of pronunciation was not part of their study. It was an extra activity in which they took part voluntarily. Thus, the researcher had to motivate them using some methods. For example, the researcher used movies as a reinforcement to motivate the subjects. They were promised that after the completion of treatment they would enjoy watching movie. It was done every day and this activity took extra time. The researcher himself taught both of the groups separately.

3.9 Materials for Instruction

Both experimental groups received treatment of instruction: explicitly and implicitly. Group A was served with the explicit instruction: sound segmentation, blending of

phonemes, metalevel knowledge of phoneme, sound matching, sound isolation, sound addition, deletion and sound substitution and uptake and practice (Abshire, 2006; Serna, 2006; Yopp & Yopp, 2000). The materials for the said instruction (see Appendix D) was prepared by the researcher through study of famous writers' writings such as Lieberman and Blumstein (1988), Sethi and Dhamija (2006), Nasr (1997), Nakagawa, Shikano and Tohkura (1996), Kelly (2000), Davenport and Hannahs (2005), Konar (2011), Paterno (2006), International Phonetic Association (2007), Brinton (2000) Cruttenden (2013), Low (2014), Yavas (2011), Brinton (2000), Zsiga (2013), Denham and Lobeck (2013), Rouch (1998), Kelly (2001), Kenworthy (1988), and Rouch (2005).

Group B was treated with the implicit instruction: recasts, extensive speaking practice on various topics, picture description (see Appendix E) activities and skill and drill (Abshire, 2006; Serna, 2006; Yopp & Yopp, 2000). The duration of the treatment was eight weeks (four weeks for Group A and four weeks for Group B) 6 hours per week (total 48 hours) and 24 hours for Group A and 24 hours for Group B.

3.10 The Procedure of the Study

3.10.1 Procedure 1. For Group A (the explicit phonetic instruction)

- i The Foremost component of teaching pronunciation explicitly is training for the explicit instruction because three features of the "explicit instruction and metacognitive and metalinguistic strategies" are interlinked with such kind of instruction (Alexander, 2014; Cunningham, 1990; DeBoer, 2003; Ellis, 2012; Hacker, Dunlosky & Graesser, 2009; Koda, 2005; Mather et al., 2009; McCune & Alexander

2014; Tracey & Morrow, 2012; Wegerif et al. 2015; Wilson & Conyers, 2015). The metacognitive approach is one of the strategies of learner autonomy where training of learners is indispensable (Ahmed, Cane, & Hanzala, 2011; Paran, & Sercu, 2010). So, the training of the subjects of Group A was conducted for one hour. First, the participants were introduced the general aims (the pronunciation problems), the course what they were going to study with its materials: written materials, (see Appendix D) software, multimedia, computer and Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary. Then the subjects were provided opportunity to think and plan about the study for one hour, for setting the objectives of the course, selection of the contents which were fit for the objectives, the procedure or methodology, how they would study the course, and the assessment of the study, i.e., how they would assess themselves using the software formatively.

- ii. The study of physiology of speech production is necessary to get a better understanding of speech production system (Marchal, 2009). Its study is also useful in the improvement of quantitative, analytical phonetic and phonological studies because it provides the detail how sound is changed and how the natural sound system is built in a way to produce sound (Lieberman & Blumstein, 1988). Kashiwagi et al. (2005) also included the instruction regarding articulation in their study. So, many writers, such as Knight (2013), Hayward (2013), Zsiga (2013), Lodge, (2009), Marchal, (2009), Ogden, (2009), Birjandi (2005), Clark & Yallop, (2000), Stevens (2000) , Rouch (1998), Kenworthy (1988) include the description of speech physiology in their books of pronunciation teaching. Saito (2011) also instructed the participants of his study with a focus on the “articulator organs, place

speech (self-regulation) that would become inner speech through externalization as Sociocultural Theory presents (Gartrell, 2014; Geeslin & Long, 2014; Gu, 2009). This activity was done using the Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (4th edition), online IPA keyboard and by the guidance of their teacher who was the researcher himself.

3.10.2 Procedure 2. For Group A (the explicit phonological instruction)

- i. The written materials (see Appendix D) about the instruction of syllables, allophones, stress in words and connected speech (phrases) was presented to the subjects of the study. The study of syllables and allophones is necessary to learn the word stress that occurs on one of the syllables of a word. First, they were offered the rules (The rules were presented in the written materials, see Appendix D) of all these things. Then the participants applied these rules themselves and found new examples through reflection. They found the examples by themselves through metacognition. For example, the rule is that the first syllable of a verb is stressed while the last syllable of a noun is stressed. The learners themselves thought about such verbs and nouns. The list of some phrases (see Appendix D in the written materials) comprising the studied some rules was offered for application.
- ii. The instruction about the rules for liaison, elision and assimilation (see Appendix D) was presented to the participants with an inventory of words pertaining to liaison and elision for application. The inventory of the words was taken from Cambridge Advance Learner's Dictionary with the help of professor of linguistics. Five hours were spent on this instruction.

3.10.3 Procedure 3. For Group B (the implicit instruction)

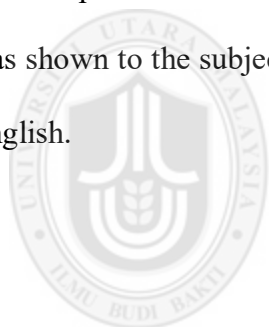
- i The experimental Group B was treated with the training but this training was different from the training of Group A. In the first hour, the subjects were busy in introducing themselves and in the second hour, the course was introduced to which they were going to study for the improvement of their pronunciation and it was also explained what kind of materials and software were going to be used in the coming days during their intervention.
- ii First, the English teacher and the subjects listened to correct pronunciation of the words from the Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (4th edition) then the teacher read aloud the words and the phrases and then the subjects were asked to practice the words by recasting. Recasting is a term used in language learning where a teacher does not provide feedback directly to correct the errors made by a learner but he gives feedback indirectly. For example, if a learner says, "assume /ə'zju:m/" the teacher repeats the word "assume, the work /ə'su:m, ðə wɜ:k/" Teacher does not correct the error directly but he provides feedback indirectly (Bordonaro, 2013). This task was practised for six hours but these words were mixed in phrases and sentences (see Appendix J).

3.10.4 Procedure 4. For Group B (the implicit instruction)

- i The subjects carried out skill and drill in speaking and in listening from <http://www.talkenglish.com/listening/> (This is website for the development of capacities of intelligibility and comprehensibility). Three lessons were selected for the speaking practice and three lessons for the listening practice and every lesson took

one hour. Three lessons from "Basic Listening Lessons", from 1-3, were selected for listening and three lessons from "English Basic Lessons: English Speaking Basics I, English Speaking Basics II and English Speaking Basics III" were selected for speaking practice. Thus, 6 hours were spent on these lessons.

- ii. Four hours were reserved for the discussion on the different topics related to education and daily life while the rest of the two hours were spent on the picture description (see appendix E) and talking about some of the topics that were initiated by the researcher that he wrote the topic on the white board and asked the subjects to make their outline. Then every subject talked in English one by one but on the specific point of the outline that was outlined. In the picture description, a picture was shown to the subjects and then every subject described the picture turn by turn in English.



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Table 3.2

The Treatment plan

Days	<i>Treatment for Group A (Explicit)</i>	<i>Treatment for Group B (Implicit)</i>
1 st day	Introduction of the class, teacher and the training about utilizing the course materials.	Introduction of the class, the teacher and the course.
2 nd day	The subjects thought themselves about plan, objectives of the course, selection of the contents, the procedure of methodology, and the assessment of the study by using the software (CALD) formatively.	The researcher explained all kind of materials (phrases loaded with problematic words) (see Appendix J), software (some videos) to be used in coming days for the improvement of pronunciation.
3 rd day	Learning of physiology of speech production	Practice of the 41 phrases loaded with 41 problematic words via recasting
4 th day	Learning of physiology of speech production	Practice of the next 41 phrases loaded with 41 problematic words via recasting
5 th day	Learning of respiratory system, phonatory system	Practice of the next 41 phrases loaded with 41 problematic words via recasting

Table 3.2 Treatment plan (continued)

6 th day	Learning of articulatory system	Practice of the next 41 phrases loaded with 41 problematic words via recasting
7 th day	Learning of vowels via Videos (see Appendix I)	Practice of the next 41 phrases loaded with 41 problematic words via recasting
8 th day	Learning of consonants via Videos	Practice of the next 41 phrases loaded with 41 problematic words via recasting
9 th day	Identification of vowels	Practice of Basic Listening Lesson 1
10 th day	Identification of consonants	Practice of Basic Listening Lesson 2
11 th day	Learning of Connection between sounds and letters in 50 words from the list of the problematic words (see Appendix H)	Practice of Basic Listening Lesson 3
12 th day	Learning of connection between sounds and letters in the next 50 words from the list of the problematic words	Practice of English Speaking Basics I
13 th day	Learning of connection between sounds and letters in the next 50 words from the list of the problematic words	Practice of English Speaking Basics 2

Table 3.2 Treatment plan (continued)

14 th day	Learning of connection between sounds and letters in the next 50 words from the list of the problematic words	Practice of English Speaking Basics 3
15 th day	Learning of connection between sounds and letters in the next 50 words from the list of the problematic words	Discussion on co-education
16 th day	Learning of syllables	Discussion on rural life and urban life
17 th day	Learning of allophones	Discussion on healthy life style
18 th day	Learning of stress in words and connected speech (phrases	Discussion on importance in English in Pakistan
19 th day	Learning of the rules for liaison	Discussion on causes of unemployment
20 th day	Learning of the rules for elision	Picture description 1
21 st day	Learning of the rules for assimilation	Picture description 2
22 nd day	Revision of the first 6 days	Revision of the first 6 days
23 rd day	Revision of the second 6 days	Revision of the second 6 days
24 th day	Revision of the third 7 days	Discussion on review of the course

3.11 Instrumentation for the Pretest and Posttest

Two tools were utilized to assess the dependent variables: intelligibility (speaker's ability to be understood) and comprehensibility (listener's ability to give meaning to the uttered words) of the subjects of the study in English language. One tool, 9-point Likert scale

was used, (see Appendix C) developed by Resis Likert, to assess the intelligibility of the subjects (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, & Sorensen, 2009). Gordon et al. (2013), Harding (2012), Lima (2011), Kim (2008), Venkatagiri, and Levis, (2007), Derwing and Munro (1997), Munro and Derwing (1994) Ruellot (2011), Sardegna (2011) and Saito (2011) also used 1-5 point to 1-9 point Likert scale to measure accent, intelligibility and comprehensibility in their research. Pickering (2006) contends that Likert scale is reliable tool to measure comprehensibility and accentedness. Two experts, lecturers in linguistic from a renowned University of Pakistan rated the 30 thirty items of prompts (see Appendix G) from the inventory of the problematic words for each variable in each test: the pretest and posttest.

The second tool was the IELTS Listening test (Cambridge ESOL Examinations, 2003) that was used to assess the comprehensibility. The test had four sections with 40 items. Every subject was provided a hard copy of the answer sheet (See Appendix F) and was asked to write his name on that sheet. The audio was played loudly. The subjects listened the audio of each section within specific time and answered the questions on the provided answer sheet. Thus, the subjects' comprehensibility was measured by the IELTS listening test in the pretest and posttest. Mokhtari and Chalak (2016) used the IELTS listening test to measure comprehensibility and Beinhoff (2014) and Kim (2008) also used such kind of tests which resemble the IELTS listening test to assess comprehensibility because this test is designed to see whether a listener can comprehend main ideas, pick specific information, recognize the ideas, attitudes and drive of a speaker and apprehend the development of an argument (Sorrenson, 2012).

The third instrument that was used to get the opinions of the participants regarding the current study was the pronunciation survey questionnaires (see Appendix K and L). The questionnaires were delivered to Group A and B's subjects who were treated with the explicit and implicit instruction to collect their opinions and suggestions for the improvement of the instruction. This kind of tool was also utilized in Couper' (2003)'s study.

3.12 Validation of the Tests

Very important issue in the measurement of the learning is validity of the instruments. If a test seems to test the intended claims through its apparent view, it is called face validity. Whether a test does measure the intended constructs or not? If it measures, then how much it measures, is related to the content validity. Actually, its span of measuring ability might be reduced or increased through the items of a test. Therefore, the items of a test should be sufficient representative of the intended content. Creswell (2012) and Gay et al. (2012) contend that validity of a test can be assessed by expert judges.

3.12.1 Panel of Judges

The tests of the current study were evaluated by the panel of judges of the University of the Punjab Lahore, Pakistan who have been teaching as assistant professors in the department of Language Teaching and Linguistics since 2000. First, they examined the face validity of the tests, i.e., the test for intelligibility and the test for comprehensibility by the appearance of the tests. To examine the content validity of the intelligibility test, they adopted a systematic procedure to make the test of the intelligibility representative

of the content. Actually, there were fifteen vowels /æ, e, ə, ɪ, ʊ, ɑ, a, ɒ, ʌ, i:, ɪ, aɪ, u, ɔ, ɜ:/, ~~don~~ consonants /j, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, g, dʒ, tʃ, k, θ, ð/ and four suprasegmental features: word ~~ss~~ liaison, elision and assimilation which were focus of the study because these segmental and suprasegmental sounds have been indicated as a problematic area for Pakistani English speakers (Ghulamullah & Hamzah, 2017; Hashmi, 2012; Khan & Qadir, 2012; Malghani & Bano, 2014; Rehman et al., 2012; Sheikh, 2012). The panel of judges was agree on the 100% representation of all the required segmental and suprasegmental sounds because they were carefully presented in the words and phrases of the test of intelligibility. This representation can be seen in Table 3.3 where every target sound is included in the test items. Thus, this test may be a valid test to measure the target sounds in the current study.



Table 3.3

The Representation of Segmental and Suprasegmental Sounds in the Intelligibility Test

No.	Segmental and suprasegmental sounds	Items of the test	Sounds of the items
1	æ	academic	/æk.ədem.k/
2	e	stapler	/ˈste.plə r /
3	ə	ahead	/əhed /
4	dʒ	suggest	/səˈdʒest/
5	ɑː	glance	/glɑːns/
6	ɔː	war	/wɔːr/
7	ʃ	schedule	/ˈed.jul/
8	s	dose	/dəʊs /
9	ʒ	asian	/ˈe.ʒ ə n/
10	uː	wound	/wuːnd/
11	tʃ	arch	/ɑːtʃ/
12	ʊ	monsoon	/mʊnˈsuːn/
13	ʊ	bow	/bəʊ/
14	ɪ	exist	/ɪˈzɪst/
15	ʌ	comfort	/ˈkʌm.fət/
16	ɔɪ	boil	/bɔɪ/
17	k	capricious	/kəˈprɪ.əs/
18	iː	caprice	/kəˈprɪs/
19	θ	healthy	/ˈhel.θi/
20	ʒ	bourgeois	/ˈbɜː.ʒə/
21	elision	next dwelling	/ˈneks dwel.ɪŋ/
22	assimilation	Red building	/ˈreb bl.dɪŋ/
23	ə	fast bowling	/mɔl /
24	z, a	housing	/ˈhaʊ.zɪŋ /
25	ʒ	jersey	/ˈdʒ.zi /
26	ai	avoid from the sun light	/əˈvɔɪd frɑːm ðiː sʌn laɪt/
27	ð	the big university	/ðiː bɪg juːnɪˈvɜːsɪti /
28	liaison	visa application	/ˈvɪzəˌæplɪkeɪn/
29	assimilation	that boat	/ðæt bəʊt/
30	word stress	sister	/ˈsɪ.sə/

3.12.2. Reliability of the Intelligibility Test

Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2010) and Pallant (2007) put that reliability denotes the calculation of the level of internal consistency among the manifold measurements of a construct. The reliability of an instrument means that the measurement is assumed to

provide analogous outcomes if it is utilized repeatedly. A reliability analysis was carried out through Cronbach's alpha co-efficient to see the consistency among the items of the intelligibility test. Cronbach's alpha is a coefficient that ranges from 0 to 1 to see the internal consistency of an instrument. It also indicates the range of a scale to measure a single construct. A high Cronbach's alpha coefficient means that the items of a test demonstrate a high consistency leading to high propensity to quantify the target construct. To see the reliability among the items of the intelligibility test of the current study, Cronbach's alpha coefficient output by SPSS was .711.

Table 3.4
Reliability Statistics

<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i>	<i>Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items</i>	<i>No. of Items</i>
.711	.710	30

In Table 3.4 Cronbach's alpha statistics presents level of the scale used in the current study that is little more than acceptable level, i.e., .60 to .70 (Hair et al. (2010). Significantly, the internal consistency of the 30 items of the intelligibility test of the present study is equal to .711 that moderately exceeds the acceptable lower level (.60). It means that the items included in the test are acceptable to the moderate extent. It also denotes that this test was appropriate for the data collection of the current study.

Table 3.5

Item Statistics

Items	Chapter 1 M	S D	N
Academic	3.82	1.507	34
Stapler	4.03	1.403	34
Ahead	4.38	1.280	34
Suggest	3.32	1.007	34
Glance	3.18	.758	34
War	3.26	1.053	34
Schedule	3.09	.712	34
Dose	3.32	.878	34
Asian	3.18	1.029	34
Wound	3.59	1.500	34
Forward	3.32	1.471	34
Monsoon	3.74	1.504	34
Bow	3.06	.851	34
Colony	3.65	1.203	34
Comfort	3.50	1.212	34
Boil	3.09	.753	34
Capricious	3.06	.600	34
Caprice	3.53	.788	34
Healthy	2.91	.900	34
Bourgeois	2.97	.758	34
Next building	4.15	1.438	34
Two	3.65	1.178	34
Fast bowling	3.38	1.181	34
Cake	3.71	1.169	34
Behind the bars	2.76	1.017	34
Avoid from the sun light	3.59	1.500	34
The big University	3.32	.912	34
Visa Application	3.18	1.058	34
That boat	3.88	1.472	34
Sister	3.32	1.296	34

3.12.3 Validity and Reliability of the IELTS Listening Test

The IELTS tests are high-stakes tests, which have impact not only on the test-takers but also on their relatives and families. Millions of students and immigrants take this test to get good academic or career prospects. Aryadoust, (2013) reports that one millions people took the IELTS test in 2010 and it has been developed as a standardized test since 1995. Hasik, Rudnick and Hackney (2013) assert that these tests are standardized which are jointly managed by University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES), “the British Counsel, and the International Development Program of Education Australia (IDPEA)” (Lazaraton, 2002, p. 161). The validity and reliability of the standardized tests are well-known and published and they maintain their validity and reliability (Lodico, et al., 2010; Polgar, & Thomas, 2011).

The IELTS listening test has four sections which are called modules: listening, reading, speaking and writing modules. One module, the listening module was taken as an instrument to measure the comprehensibility of the current study because the listening module (meant for listening comprehension) assesses the test-taker’s “understanding a speech in “details and explicitly stated information and making paraphrases—the ability to make inferences, interpret illocutionary meaning” and connotation “with external measurement criteria of listening comprehension” (Aryadoust, 2013). Castello, (2008) verify the validity and reliability of IELTS tests. Therefore, Farhady (2005) endorses the validation of the IELTS listening test as having features of face validity and content validity. Thus, the listening test was used in the current study that was taken from Cambridge ESOL Examinations (2003) and was purchased from the British Council Lahore, Pakistan, in shape of papers and CD.

However, to examine the face validity and content validity, the panel of judges who judged the intelligibility test of the current study also judged the listening test. They found that the test was for listening by its face. They also listened the CD of IELTS listening test and came to the decision that all the components of the test were accurate in content and voice quality.

3.13 Data Collection and Analysis Plan

3.13.1 The Data Collection Plan for Intelligibility

Every group, Group A and Group B were pretested and posttested. The tests consisted of the words and short sentences (see Appendix G) and these words and sentences comprised the target vowels, consonants and phonological targets. Kashiwagi et al. (2005), Gordon et al. (2013), Khanbeiki (2015), Papachristou (2011) and Saito (2007; 2011) also used this method to assess the participants' performance. Every test had 30 items. Twenty items were selected from the inventory of problematic sound words mixed with general words and 5 items were selected from the phrases having assimilation, liaison and elision (see Appendix D). Gordon et al. (2013) adopted the same procedure for their study. Most of the items of the pretest and posttest for intelligibility were the same but some of them were different to avoid the test-retests effects.

To assess the intelligibility, the subjects read the items of tests loudly and their speeches were recorded in a computer. Then the recording of every subject was played using a paddle machine (see Figure 3.4) and the software Bitescribe WavPlayer (see Figure 3.2). The sounds were uploaded on the software and were played. The paddle machine (see Figure 3.3) was connected to that software via a computer to stop, slow down, forward

and backward. Thus, speech of every subject was rated on 9-point Likert scale (from 1 to 9 scores) by two professors of Linguistics of a well known University of Pakistan.

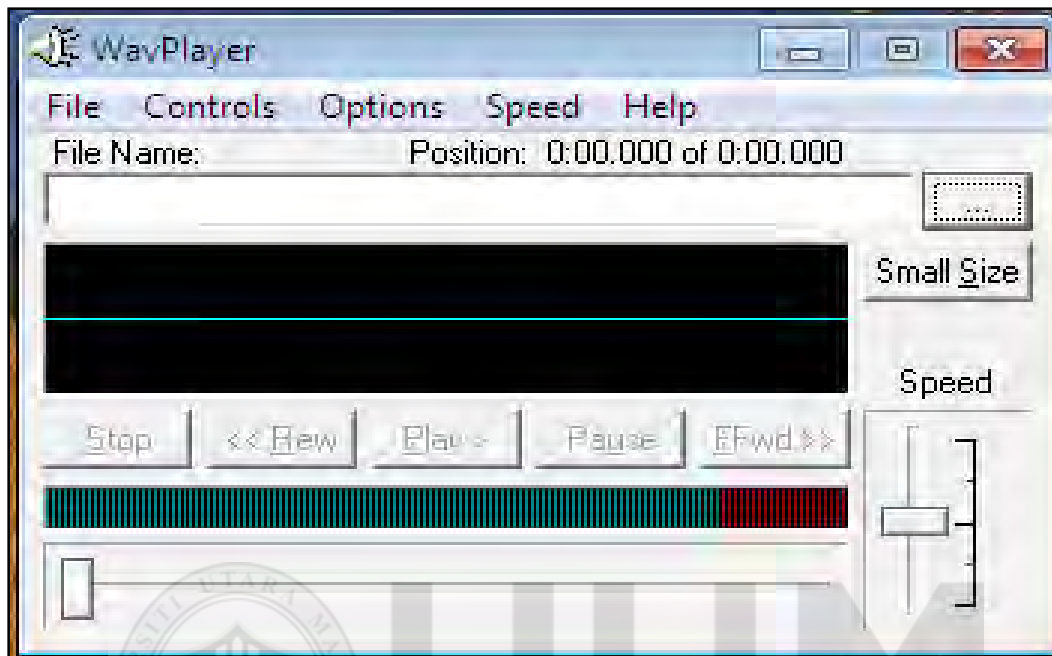


Figure 3.2 WavPlayer to Control Sounds



Figure 3.3 Paddle Machine to Control the WavPlayer



Figure 3.4 Using Paddle Machine

Thirty recorded items were rated of every participant one by one. For example, for the recording item No. 3, one participant gets 7 scores and for the fifth item he gets 5 scores. The same procedure was adopted by Saito (2011) to measure the accentedness and comprehensibility of the subjects of his study.

Thus, the scores on every item of the pretests and posttests of every subject were saved. It means that 30 items with their scores were saved of every subject of one group. Then the saved data was entered in SPSS and the difference between the means of the results of both the groups were compared using *t*-test. The intelligibility of Group A and the intelligibility of Group B was compared. For the inter groups' comparison, the comparison was carried out between the results of the pretests of Group A and B and between the results of posttests of Group A and B. While for the intra groups' comparison, the comparison was performed between the results of the pretest and posttest of Group A and between the results of pretest and the posttest of Group B.

3.13.2 The Data Collection Plan for Comprehensibility

In Beinhoff's (2014) and Kim's (2008) studies, there were two kinds of groups: one group was speakers' group whose speeches were recorded and the other groups were listeners' groups who rated the speakers' accentedness and their own comprehensibility. It means that the listeners' groups listened to the recordings and rated. Similarly, as mentioned above, for the assessment of comprehensibility, IELTS listening test was used where participants of the study listened the recordings provided by Cambridge University and solved the answer sheet. The test had 40 items equal to 40 marks: every item had 1 mark for the correct answer and 0 mark for the wrong answer. The pretest and posttest of the study was the same test. This method might cause test-retest practice effects but these effects could not be expected because there was two months gap between the pretest and posttest (Bachman, 1990). Furthermore, Saito (2011) too used the same test/instrument in the pretest and posttest of his study. The results of the posttest of both the groups were put in SPSS. The difference between the means of both results was processed via t-test. The comprehensibility of Group A and the comprehensibility of Group B was compared. The comparison carried out between the groups and within the groups.

3.13.3 The Data Collection Plan for the Assessment and Improvement of the

Explicit Instruction Manipulated in the Current Study

As a third instrument, a pronunciation questionnaire was used to collect the data about the opinions, points of view and suggestions of the subjects of the study for explicit instruction implicit instruction.

This kind of questionnaire was also used by Couper (2003). Three constructs were incorporated into the items of the questionnaire, i.e., achievement of the objectives, assessment of the instruction and suggestions for improvement in the explicit instruction which have been described in Table 3.6. The data obtained from the questionnaire was analyzed using SPSS to see the frequency and percentage of the responses of the subjects of Group A and Group B. Every item of the questionnaire was discussed to find out the opinions of the subjects regarding the received explicit instruction and implicit instruction.



Table 3.6

The Pronunciation Survey Questionnaire Sample

Constructs	Items
Achievement of the objectives	1 Did you know the phonemes before this course?
	2 Did you know the sounds of the Alphabet of English before this course?
	3 Did you know the symbols of the sounds before this course?
	4 Did you know about word stress, liaison, assimilation and elision before this course?
	5 How much you are confident to pronounce correctly the problematic words you have studied.
	6 Did you think learning by yourselves was a good idea?
Assessment of the instruction	7 Did the use of the digital dictionary help you in performing correct pronunciation?
	8 Were the videos were helpful in teaching the sounds of English Alphabet?
	9 Was the connection between sounds and the letters an effective method?
	10 Was the course interesting?
Suggestions for improvement	11 Was the course easy?
	12 Were the rules to learn sounds of alphabet enough to help you?
	13 Were the instruction regarding word stress, liaison, assimilation and elision were enough?
	14 Will you like to attend this kind of course in future?
	15 Do you think this course should be an integral part of English syllabus?
	16 Do you think that course should be an integral part of examinations

3.14 Summary

This chapter included the paradigm of the study that was an experimental research regarding the improvement of intelligibility and comprehensibility through the explicit vs the implicit instruction in the Pakistani context. It discussed the population of the study which was the intermediate level students of a semi-urban higher secondary school in Punjab, Pakistan. It talked over the design of the study that was two experiential groups design so that both groups could receive treatment and the reactive arrangements can be prevented (If one group receive treatment and the other does not then one group is motivated and the other is demotivated). This chapter mentioned the pilot study that was also conducted prior to starting the main study. Two experimental groups: Group A and Group B were manipulated with the explicit instruction and implicit instruction respectively. It also comprised the instruments to evaluate Intelligibility via the pretests and posttests consisted of the items loaded with target sounds while the comprehensibility was measured by the IELTS listening test. For the collection of the data, two instruments were used: speaking test using 9-point Likert scale to assess the intelligibility and the IELTS listening test by the Cambridge University for comprehensibility. Furthermore, this chapter discussed the pronunciation survey questionnaire which was exploited to collect the quantitative data about the efficacy and deficiencies of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter contains the quantitative data analysis of the pretests of Group A and Group B for intelligibility and comprehensibility and the quantitative data analysis of the posttests of Group A and Group B for intelligibility and comprehensibility. It also comprises the quantitative data analysis of the comparison of intra groups' results and discussions on intelligibility and comprehensibility accompanied with survey questionnaire.

4.2 Statistics of the Pretests and the Posttests for Intelligibility

4.2.1 Research Hypothesis (i)

The first objective of the study was to see the effects of the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction and the implicit instruction on the intelligibility of English language of the Pakistani intermediate students. For this purpose, the following directional research hypothesis was postulated.

“The intermediate Pakistani English learners who receive the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction are better in intelligibility than the learners who receive the implicit instruction”.

To prove or disprove the stated hypothesis, thirty four subjects of the study were treated with the explicit and implicit instruction. The design of the study was two experimental groups design in which every group was to be manipulated with the independent

variables: the explicit instruction and implicit instruction. Both of the groups were pretested and posttested. The results of the pretests and posttests of both of the groups were compared using independent samples t-test to make the comparison between the two groups and for the comparison within the groups; the paired samples t-test was conducted.

In the most cases, when paired samples t-test is conducted then there might not be validity of the results produced by the paired t-test because the subjects might change as a matter of course. Sometimes, they might change for systematic reasons. That is why there a control group and an experimental group are needed. It is not enough to assume that the subjects are being changed over the time because of intervention. Thus, there should be a control group and an experimental group. It will show that the independent variable or manipulation is changing the subjects that would be a confirmed evidence for change. Accordingly, to confirm the results, in the current study, the comparison between the results of Group A and Group B has been carried out using independent samples t-test to see the difference between the two groups before and after the intervention.

In the pretests of experimental groups, it might expected that there would be no significant difference between the means of the two groups because the groups were made homogeneously in every aspect to the great extent. Moreover, in the posttests of the groups, the significant difference between the means was expected to confirm the hypothesis. Thus, in this study, first, the scores of pretests of both of the groups were analyzed to see the expected difference, i.e., no significant difference or significant difference in the posttests. The numerical detail of the pretests of both of the groups is provided in Table 4.1 and Table 4.2.

Table 4.1

Group Statistics of the Pretests of Group A and Group B for Intelligibility

Groups	N	M	S D	S E M
Pre Test Group A	17	80.2667	8.90800	2.30003
Pre Test Group B	17	79.8000	8.54568	2.20648

Table 4.2

Independent Samples t-test of the Pretests of Group A and Group B for Intelligibility

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
								<i>95% C I</i>	
	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	<i>M D</i>	<i>S E D</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
Equal variances assumed	.024	.879	.146	28	.885	.46667	3.18728	6.99551	6.06217
Equal variances not assumed			.146	27.952	.885	.46667	3.18728	6.99601	6.06268

The output produced by Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) in Table 4.1 indicates that the sample size of both of the groups: Group A and Group B was equal in number (17 and 17). It also provides that the means of the results of Group A and Group B. Group A has a mean (80.26) and Group B's mean is (79.80). Then Group A's standard deviation is (8.90) and group B's standard deviation is (8.54). Therefore, it can be said by looking at the means numerically that there is no significant difference between the of the results of the means (80.26 and 79.80) because the difference is equal to 0.46 approximately. Similarly, the difference in the standard deviations is also about 0.36 which not statistically significant.

Table 4.2 displays the actual results of the t-test but the first thing that exists in this table, is Levene's test for the equality of variances that examines the homogeneity of variance. So, in the independent groups, the t-test assumes that the variances in the standard deviation is same in both the samples. They do not have exactly the same but have to be similar to the extent that difference between them is statistically significant. Levene's test for equality of variances equaled in this analysis is an F-value that is equal to .024 and it is very small F-value and the significance of this F-value is: .879 ($.879 > 0.05$), which is not statistically significant if there is a significant P-value that should not be equal to (0.05) but it should be less than (0.05) (Davies, 2009). Then it can be said that the variances or the standard deviations are not the same, in all probability. But, here, the F significance is more than (0.05). The variances are probably based on the samples from different populations. So, one can become concerned about interpreting the t-value and the P-value if the homogeneity of variance assumption does not hold. However, in this data because the significant value is not equal to (0.05) or less (in this homogeneity

of variance of Levene's test for equality of variances test), so, the difference is not significant. The regular t-value and the significance level associated with this t-value can be interpreted with confidence because t-value is equal to: .146 ($.146 > 0.05$) with the degree of freedom: 28 at the significance level: .885. This value is bigger than: 0.05, the hypothesis of difference between the means of the results of two variables is rejected and it is stated that in probability that the difference in the pretests between Group A and Group B is not statistically significant because P-value is equal to (.885) which is bigger than: 0.05 ($.885 > 0.05$).

In the "equal variances not assumed" the result which produces a t-value (.46) and adjusts the degrees of freedom to (27.8), and the significance level is similar that is (.885). Therefore, basically, the results are similar whether one looks on 'equal variances not assumed' and that is because the variances are basically the same. The variances in the standard deviation are an output obtained by squaring these values to get the variances, but these standard deviations are very similar and that is why, the two t-values are similar or very close to the same significance level. The means of the results of the two groups are (79.80 and 80.26) because there is a mean difference (0.46). The standard error associated with that mean difference is also produced by SPSS is (3.1).

The confidence intervals of the difference between the means is (6.9-6.0) from lower level to upper level and this difference between these two levels is not statistically significant.

Table 4.3

Group Statistics of the Posttests of Group A and Group B for Intelligibility

Groups	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>S D</i>	<i>S E M</i>
Post Test Group A	17	135.0000	25.97178	6.49294
Post Test Group B	17	79.7500	9.44105	2.36026

Table 4.4

Independent Samples t-test of the Posttests of Group A and Group B for Intelligibility

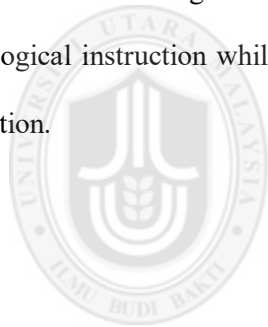
Levene's Test for Equality of Variances					t-test for Equality of Means				
								<i>95% C I</i>	
	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig. (2- tailed)</i>	<i>M D</i>	<i>S E D</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
Equal variances assumed	10.757	.003	7.997	30	.000	55.25000	6.90863	41.14070	69.35930
Equal variances not assumed			7.997	18.896	.000	55.25000	6.90863	40.78469	69.71531

In the light of the above discussion, it is clear that the findings obtained from the analysis of the pretests of Group A and Group B confirmed the expectation: that there was no significant difference between the means of the results of both the groups. Table 4.3 presents the group statistics of the posttests of Group A and Group B with the same size of sample in each group. Here, the output provides the means of the results of Group A and Group B: as (135 and 79.75) respectively with significant difference (55.25). The standard deviation of Group A is (25.97) and Group B is (9.44). It also shows the difference 16.53. Thus, the difference between the means and standard deviation is enough to show a significant difference.

Table 4.4, presents the results of independent samples t-test of posttests of Group A and Group B with the Levene's Test for "equality of variances assumed". The variances in the standard deviation are not similar in both samples but they are statistically different from each other. It was assumed that the F is equal to (10.7) that is bigger than its significant value: 00.3 ($00.3 < 0.05$). Here, the F-value is statistically significant because it is less than 0.5. Thus, the assumed homogeneity of variances is not the same. Same is the case with t-value that is equal to (7.9) associated with degrees of freedom (30) having significant level (.000) because it is again less than P-value: 0.5 ($.000 < 0.05$). So, the hypothesis has been proved that there is difference between the means of the results of the two variables: (independent) the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction and implicit phonetic and phonological instruction. On the 'equal variance not assumed', again, t-value is equal to (7.9) adjusting the degree of freedom to (18.8) and the significance is the same, i.e., .000 ($.000 < 0.05$). Table 4.4 also provides the difference between the two means (135 and 79.75) because there is a mean difference (55.25). The

standard error associated with that mean difference is (6.9) that shows that there is only (6.9) estimated standard deviation of the sample average difference. The difference between the confidence intervals of both of the groups is from (40 to 70) intervals which is too statistically significant.

Then the t-value, degree of freedom, two tailed significance, mean difference, standard effort difference and confidence level are the same as were under the heading of “equal variances assumed”. Looking at all the indicators given in the Levene's test for equality of variances and t-test for equality of means it can be easily concluded that Group A's performance was better than the Group B's in the posttests and this change happened due to the different instructions that were given to the groups. Group A was treated with the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction while Group B was treated with the implicit phonetic and phonological instruction.



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Table 4.5

Paired Samples Statistics of the Pretest and the Posttest of Group A for Intelligibility

		<i>M</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S D</i>	<i>S E M</i>
Pair 1	Posttest Group A	131.8667	17	23.54590	6.07953
	Pretest Group A	80.2667	17	8.90800	2.30003

Table 4.6

Paired Samples Correlations of the Pretest and the Posttest of Group A for Intelligibility

		<i>N</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Pair 1	Posttest & Pretest of Group A	17	-.313	.256

Table 4.7

Paired Samples Test of the Pretest and the Posttest of Group A for Intelligibility

		Paired Differences							
		<i>95% C I</i>							
		<i>M</i>	<i>S D</i>	<i>S E M</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	Posttest – Pretest Group A	51.60000	27.66070	7.14196	36.28202	66.91798	66.91798	14	.000

The paired samples statistics of the pretest and posttest of Group A for intelligibility has been provided in Table 4.5 where mean of the samples has value (131.86 and 80.26) with a great difference (51.60). The samples size is equal in every test that is (17). The variances of the tests is too far from the mean value of the samples that is (23.54 and 8.90). Standard error mean (6.07 and 2.30) indicates how much a sample mean is far from the real mean of the population. The paired samples t-test does not provide the detail of standard deviation as it is provided by the independent sample t-test under the heading of Levene's test for equality of variances where F-value is given with its significant value.

The paired samples correlation is extra information that is not provided in the independent t-test. In Table 4.6, the correlation between the pretest and posttest of Group A is negative (-.313). It tells that there is no correlation between the tests. So, it has non-significant value (.256). Its negativity also causes to increase standard error mean.

In Table 4.7, the paired samples test of the pretest and posttest of Group A provides the details of difference among various values. The mean difference (51.60) that is too vigorous to create a numerical significant difference between the two tests. The standard deviation difference (27.66) is similar with the indication of the assumed homogeneity of variances across the variables. Standard error mean has the difference (7.14). All these indicators show that the range of mean is from (36.28 to 66.91). Finally, the actual results of the paired samples t-test are given where t-value stands with high power to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference between the means of the two tests. Thus, it has significant value (.000), which is not smaller than p-value (.05) because the significance of t-value (.000) is less than: 0.05 ($.000 < 0.05$).

Consequently, it is clear that Group A improved their intelligibility after receiving the treatment of explicit instruction comparing the results of pretest and posttest of Group A.



Table 4.8

Paired Samples Statistics of the Pretest and the Posttest of Group B for Intelligibility

		<i>M</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S D</i>	<i>S E M</i>
Pair 1	Posttest Group B	79.8000	17	8.54568	2.20648
	Pretest Group B	80.2667	17	9.53540	2.46203

Table 4.9

Paired Samples Correlations of the Pretest and the Posttest of Group B for Intelligibility

		<i>N</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Pair 1	Posttest & Pretest of Group B	17	.758	.001

Table 4.10

Paired Samples Test of the Pretest and the Posttest of Group B for Intelligibility

Paired Differences									
<i>95% C I</i>									
		<i>M</i>	<i>S D</i>	<i>S E M</i>	<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>
Pair 1	Posttest – Pretest	-.46667	6.35685	1.64133	-3.98697	3.05364	-.284	14	.780
Group B									

The results of the paired samples t-test have been provided in Table 4.8. The table comprises of the paired samples statistics of both of the tests where means of the results of the two tests have so small difference (0.46 out of 79.80 and 80.26). The similar case is with standard deviation that has difference (0.99 out of 8.54 and 9.53). The size of the samples is equal in every group. Standard error mean has value (2.20 and 2.46) with minor difference.

In Table 4.9, the paired samples correlation statistics of the pretest and the posttest of Group B (.758) indicates a positive correlation between the two tests. So, this correlation would not reject the null hypothesis. This correlation is also significant in reducing the standard error mean that is (1.64) only.

Table 4.10 includes the paired samples test of the said tests. This test elaborates the paired differences starting from mean difference. As it is said above, this mean difference (-.46) is very small to make apart the tests' results. It tells that the results of both of the tests are same. Although the paired samples test provides the standard deviation difference but it does not provide its detail like independent sample test because the tests have positive correlation, so, the standard error mean has the value (1.64) that is also small. This entire situation also reduces the level of confidence because the difference of confidence interval is low that is (-3.98) from lower bound and (3.05) to upper bound. The t-value seems to be weaker here with the value (-.284) due to its small value of the significance (.780) that rejects the hypothesis that there is substantial difference between the two variables. Thus, it is clear by the above analysis that the treatment of the implicit instruction could not improve intelligibility to the extent that could differentiate the results because the results before and after the treatment were similar.

4.3 Statistics of the Pretests and the Posttests for Comprehensibility

4.3.1 The Research Hypothesis (ii)

The second objective of the study was to find out which method of instruction: the explicit segmental and suprasegmental instruction or the implicit segmental and suprasegmental instruction was more effective to enhance comprehensibility. To achieve this objective the following research hypothesis was postulated:

“The intermediate Pakistani English learners who receive the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction are better in comprehensibility than the learners who receive the implicit instruction”.

The results of Group A and Group B were analyzed through SPSS. The means of the results of both of the groups were compared using independent samples t-test. Here, again as it was in the analysis of intelligibility, both of the groups were compared inter groups and intra groups.

The results of comprehensibility are similar the results of intelligibility. The explicit phonetic and phonological instruction proved more effective than the implicit instruction in improving the comprehensibility of the Pakistani intermediate English speakers.

Table 4.11

Group Statistics of the Pretests of Group A and Group B for Comprehensibility

Groups	N	M	S D	S E M
Pretest Group A	17	8.4000	3.33381	.86079
Pretest Group B	17	6.2667	4.44758	1.14836

Table 4.12

Independent Samples t-test of the Pretests of Group A and Group B for Comprehensibility

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
		95% C I							
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	M D	S E D	LL	UL
Equal variances assumed	1.726	.200	1.486	28	.148	2.13333	-.80646	-6.58008	5.07312
Equal variances not assumed			1.486	25.957	.149	2.13333	-.81691	-6.55846	5.08358

Table 4.11 presents the group statistic of the pretests of Group A and Group B where the samples are equal in their size because every group consisted of 17 subjects. It can be seen that the difference between the means: 8.40 and 6.26 of the pretests of both of the groups in the group statistic is (2.14) approximately. The standard deviation: 3.33 and 4.44 tells how much the results of the pretests of the groups differ from the mean value of the tests. Thus, the difference in the standard deviation between the pretests is (1.11). The standard error mean (.86 and 1.14) measures the accuracy of the samples with difference (1.06). Looking at the above statistics, it can be estimated that the difference between the means and standard deviation is not statistically different because the difference is very small to draw a distinct line between the groups.

Table 4.12, presents two facts, i.e., Levene's test for equality of variances and t-test for equality of means. Levene's test for equality of variances measures how homogeneity of variance assumption was assumed where F-value (1.72) indicates that variance is equal between the groups because it has not significant value (.20) that is bigger than P-value: 0.05 ($.20 > 0.05$). Here, the F-value measures the statistic of the groups that is not significant in the assumption of homogeneity of variances. Thus, the variances of the groups do not fall far from the mean of the results of the samples, so, the results of both of the groups are similar. The t-test for equality of means assumes that the variances expressed in t-value with its sig. (2-tailed) and mean difference, are same in both the samples. They are not just similar but they are similar to the extent that they are not significantly different from each other because t-value increases when homogeneity of variances increases where two group stand too closely. Thus, here, t-value (1.48) is bigger than P-value: 0.5 ($1.48 > 0.05$) that is very important to make the two groups

significantly apart. Although the df-value adjust the degree of freedom (28) yet the sig. (2-tailed) has value (.148) that is also bigger than P-value: 0.5 ($1.48 > 0.05$) with too little means difference (2.13). Therefore, the confidence interval is only (-6.5 to 5.0) at 95% level of significance.

Same is the case with “equal variances not assumed” t-value (1.48) with the adjustment of the degrees of freedom to (25), and the significance level (.148) indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between the means of both of the groups. Therefore, principally, the results are the similar whether one looks at “equal variances assumed” or equal variances not assumed” because the variances are essentially the same. It can be concluded that both groups were equal in their comprehensibility pretests.



Table 4.13

Group Statistics of the Posttests of Group A and Group B for Comprehensibility

Groups	N	M	SD	SEM
Posttest Group A	17	13.8824	4.44244	1.07745
Posttest Group B	17	5.8235	2.48081	.60168

Table 4.14

Independent Samples t-test of the Posttests of Group A and Group B for Comprehensibility

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
		95% CI							
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	MD	SED	LL	UL
Equal variances assumed	5.968	.020	6.530	32	.000	8.05882	1.23407	5.54511	10.57254
Equal variances not assumed			6.530	25.095	.000	8.05882	1.23407	5.51770	10.59995

In Table 4.13, the output is related to the group statistics of Group A and Group B for comparison. The N-value indicates that the samples of the population are of the same in size: 17 subjects in each group. This table also tells the means difference of the results of the groups that is (13.88 and 5.82) with the mean difference (8.06). How the variances of one sample are far from the mean value of the samples, are estimated by standard deviation that puts the value (4.44 and 2.48) with the difference (1.96). In addition, how much the group mean differs from the real mean of the population is presented by standard error mean (1.07 and .60) with the difference (.47). The results stated above stated mean that is significant difference between the results of the both samples.

Table 4.14 presents two kind of tests: Levene's test for equality of variances and t-test for equality of means. The Levene's test for equality of variances includes two values: F-value and its sig-value. F-value is increased if the variance is not equal among groups. Thus, here, F-value has been increases to (5.96). But it has significance which is too bigger than its significance value (.020) because this value is less than: 0.5, ($.020 < .05$) so, it rejects the hypothesis of equal variances are not assumed differently. The P-value (.000) related to the sig. (2-tailed) is also statistically significant due to its smallness as compared to P-value: 0.5 ($.000 < 0.5$) that proves a null hypothesis and negates a research hypothesis: that there is difference in the results across the groups. The variance, associated to the mean difference is (8.05), assumes that there is significant difference between the two groups. The sample average difference is assumed by standard error difference with the value (1.23). The range of values of the parameter, i.e. the means of the groups are estimated by the confidence interval of the difference so that the researcher can be confident regarding the precision of statistics concerning the samples. Thus, the

confidence interval of the difference estimates the precision is from (5.54 to 10.57). The t-value (6.53) that adjusts the degree of freedom has statistically significant value (.000).

Thus, it has been proved that the group who received the treatment of the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction performed better than the group who received the implicit phonetic and phonological instructing in improving comprehensibility.



Table 4.15

Paired Samples Statistics of the Pretest and the Posttest of Group A for Comprehensibility

		<i>M</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S D</i>	<i>S E M</i>
Pair 1	Posttest Group A	14.8000	17	4.21223	1.08759
	Pretest Group A	8.1333	17	2.79966	.72287

Table 4.16

Paired Samples Correlations of the Pretest and the Posttest of Group A for Comprehensibility

		<i>N</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Pair 1	Posttest & Pretest of Group A	17	.360	.188

Table 4.17

Paired Samples Test of the Pretest and the Posttest of Group A for Comprehensibility

Paired Differences									
		<i>M</i>	<i>S D</i>	<i>S E M</i>	<u><i>95% C I</i></u>		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>
					<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>			
Pair 1	Posttest – Pretest Group A	6.66667	4.13464	1.06756	4.37698	8.95635	6.245	15	.000

Tables 4.11 to 4.14 were regarding the comparison between the results of the two groups while tables 4.15 to 4.20 are related to the comparison of the results within groups. By the comparison produced by paired samples t-test, it can be estimated which group performed well in its posttest compared to its pretest.

Table 4.15 presents the paired samples statistics of the pretest and the posttest of Group A. The sample size of each group was equal. The mean of the results of the posttest of Group A is equal to (14.80) and the mean of the pretest of that group is equal to (8.13) with the numerical difference (6.67). The standard deviation indicates how much the members of the posttest differ from the mean value of the pretest. Therefore, the difference in standard deviation is (1.5 from 4.2) of the posttest versus (2.7) of the pretest. The standard error mean (1.00 and .70) for the posttest and the pretest respectively tells the sample means deviate with the minor difference (0.3) from the actual mean of the population.

Table 4.16 is related to the paired samples correlations of the tests. Here, the correlation (0.360) indicates that some of the subjects are not similar because the ranking from (1 to 50) tends to be the same and that's why, here in the said test, there is no correlation between the tests. Mostly, a positive correlation is higher scores is equal to (1) or more. It is important for the paired samples t-test because the larger correlation is or it is positive, the less standard error would be in testing the hypothesis that the means would be different. It also rejects the null hypothesis.

Table 4.17 presents the actual results of the t-test. It tells that the mean difference between the two tests is (6.66) that is too bigger to differentiate between the results of the

pretest and the posttest of Group A. Standard deviation is presented with the difference (4.13) with the difference of standard mean (1.06). The confidence interval of the difference provides the confidence interval from (4.37 to 8.95) from lower bound to upper bound. The t-value (6.24) with degree of freedom has too much significance because its significance value (.000) is less than: 0.05 ($.000 < 0.05$). Therefore, it may reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the pretest and the posttest of Group A. It means that the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction was effective in enhancing comprehensibility.



Table 4.18

Paired Samples Statistics of the Pretest and the Posttest of Group B for Comprehensibility

		<i>M</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S D</i>	<i>S E M</i>
Pair 1	Posttest Group B	6.2667	17	4.44758	1.14836
	Pretest Group B	5.8000	17	2.17781	.56231

Table 4.19

Paired Samples Correlations of the Pretest and the Posttest of Group B for Comprehensibility

		<i>N</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Pair 1	Posttest & Pretest of Group B	17	-.127	.652

Table 4.20

Paired Samples Test of the Pretest and the Posttest of Group B for Comprehensibility

		Paired Differences							
		<i>M</i>	<i>S D</i>	<i>S E M</i>	95% C I		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>
					<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>			
Pair 1	Posttest – Pretest Group B	.46667	5.19432	1.34117	-2.40985	3.34318	.348	15	.733

The paired samples statistics of the pretest and the posttest of Group B is shown in Table 4.3.8 where the means of the results of both the tests are compared. The mean of the posttest is equal to (6.26 and 5.80) of the pretest with the minor difference (0.46). The size of samples is equal for each sample. How much variances are far from the mean of the samples is provided by the standard deviation that is (4.44 and 2.17) with difference (2.27) only. The difference between the sample mean and the actual mean of a population is shown in the standard error mean with value (1.14 and .56). Here, the mean difference is too small, so, it can be concluded that there would be no significant difference between the means.

Table 4.19 is about the paired samples correlations of the tests, which shows that the correlation tends to be negative (-.127) and its significance is also important in refuting or confirming the null hypothesis that there is no difference between the results of the posttest and the pretest of Group B. Thus, it carries the significance value (.652), which is bigger than: 0.05 ($.652 > 0.05$).

The paired samples test of the pretest and the posttest of Group B is presented in Table 4.20. Here, the mean difference across the tests and that difference is (0.46) which is too small to draw a differential line between the results of both the tests. Same is the case of homogeneity of the variances of the samples that is (5.19). The standard error difference estimates the average difference from the mean population that is (1.34). The degree of confidence is from (-2.40) lower bound to (3.34) upper bound. It tells that the parameter of the population, i.e., the mean was at close intervals. This also indicates the similarity of the results of both the tests. The t-value seems to be weaker too because its value is equal to (.348) with the significance (.733). Here, the t-value shows no significant results

(.733 > 0.05). Thus, the directional research hypothesis may be rejected that the results of a group in the posttests are better than the results of the pretest because it received treatment. It can be concluded that the implicit phonetic and phonological instruction that was independent variable for Group B could not improve the comprehensibility of the group because the results of the pretest and the posttest are the similar.

4.4 Statistics of the Pronunciation Survey for Group A

4.4.1 Achievement of the Objectives (construct 1)

The questions from 1-5 are related to the achievement of the objectives of the treatment or the course (explicit phonetic and phonological instruction). What is the opinion of the subjects of Group A about the effectiveness of the treatment? For the first three questions, most of the subjects thought that they had not knowledge of phonemes, sounds of letters and their symbols before this study. Looking at Table 4.21-23, it can be examined that 58% to 88% of the subjects responded that they absolutely did not know phonemes, sounds of letters and their symbols before this study. While only the 11% to 41% admitted that they had very little knowledge about them before the study. Overall, this trend ascertains that the subjects of Group A were unaware of phonemes, sounds of letters and their symbols prior to the current study. Thus, the results tabulated in Table 4.24 and Table 4.25 present that the subjects of Group A had good knowledge about phonemes, sounds and symbols of the sounds after the treatment of the study.

Table 4.21 Group A

Question No. 1 Did you know the phonemes before this course?

Scale	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>M</i>
Not at all (1)	10	58.8	1.4118
Slightly (2)	7	41.2	
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.22 Group A

Question No. 2. Did you know the sounds of the Alphabet of English before this course?

Scale	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>M</i>
Not at all (1)	13	76.5	1.2353
Slightly (2)	4	23.5	
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.23 Group A

Question No. 3. Did you know the symbols of the sounds before this course?

Scale	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>M</i>
Not at all (1)	15	88.2	1.1176
Slightly (2)	2	11.8	
Total	17	100.0	

Surprisingly, the opinions of the subjects about word stress, liaison, assimilation and elision presented in Table 4.24 differs from the trend of the questions 1-3. Thus, the mean of the results of the question is (3.1) that is between the high and low scores because 75% of the subjects assumed that they had knowledge of these phonological features of speech slightly moderate and moderately before this study. However, they performed better after the treatment as it has been proved by the results of the posttests of the study.

Table 4.24 Group A

Question No. 4. Did you know about word stress, liaison, assimilation and elision before this course?

Scale	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>M</i>
Slightly (2)	3	17.6	3.1765
Slightly moderate (3)	9	52.9	
Moderately (4)	4	23.5	
Extremely (5)	1	5.9	
Total	17	100.0	

Looking at the Table 4.25, it can be assumed that most of the subjects of Group A believed that they were confident to pronounce problematic words correctly because 70% of the subjects thought that they could pronounce them correctly while 23% were more confident than the 70%. Thus, the mean (4.1) of the results of Question No. 5 was also significant in the statistics of the study because, here, the closeness of the means indicates the groups or subjects are similar in their response (that means that they are agree to the great extant).

Table 4.25 Group A

Question No. 5. How much are you confident to pronounce correctly the problematic words you have studied?

Scale	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>M</i>
Slightly moderate (3)	1	5.9	4.1765
Moderately (4)	12	70.6	
Extremely (5)	4	23.5	
Total	17	100.0	

4.4.2 Assessment of the Instruction (construct two)

Table 4.26-31 quantifies the views of the subjects of Group A regarding the efficacy of the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction in the promotion of teaching of pronunciation. Approximately, from 41% to 58 percent subjects were moderately agreed that metacognitive approach, usage of digital dictionary, watching videos about sounds/phonemes and comparison or connection between sounds and letters helped them in the learning of pronunciation. Thus the means of the results of the questions 1- 9 are too much significant that is from (4.1- 4.5). The same trend has been recorded about attraction and easiness of the treatment. Here from 70% to 78% of the subjects were moderately motivated by the instruction with a high means of the results from (4.0 to 4.3). The closeness of the means is actually an agreement among the subjects on the question asked to them.

Table 4.26 Group A

Question No. 6. Did you think learning by yourselves was a good idea?

Scale	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Slightly moderate (3)	1	5.9	4.4706
Moderately (4)	9	52.9	
Extremely (5)	7	41.2	
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.27 Group A

Question No. 7. Did the use of the digital dictionary help you in performing correct pronunciation?

Values	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Slightly moderate (3)	1	5.9	4.5882
Moderately (4)	7	41.2	
Extremely (5)	9	52.9	
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.28 Group A

Question No. 8. Were the videos helpful in teaching the sounds of English Alphabet?

Values	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Moderately (4)	7	41.2	4.2353
Extremely (5)	10	58.8	
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.29 Group A

Question No. 9. Was the connection between sounds and the letters an effective method?

Values	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Moderately (4)	11	64.7	4.1765
Extremely (5)	6	35.3	
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.30 Group A

Question No. 10. Was the course interesting?

Values	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Moderately (4)	13	76.5	4.3529
Extremely (5)	4	23.5	
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.31 Group A

Question No. 11. Was the course easy?

Values	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Slightly moderate (3)	1	5.9	4.0588
Moderately (4)	12	70.6	
Extremely (5)	4	23.5	
Total	17	100.0	

4.4.3 Suggestions for the Improvement (construct three)

Most of the participants of the study believed that the rules and instruction regarding the learning of sounds, word stress, liaison, assimilation and elision were moderate enough. As stated in Table 4.32 and Table 4.33, 70% to 82% ticked the box of “moderately” that means they marked 4 marks out of 5 for the sufficiency of the instruction. This trend also indicates the required improvement in the instruction. Therefore, the means of the results of the questions have been tabulated from (4.3 to 4.5) with its significance because most of the subjects are agree on the required information. The same opinions have been calculated for the participation of the subjects in the future pronunciation teaching programs in Table 4.34 but with the emphasis on making teaching pronunciation a part of their syllabus and examinations. Fifty eight percent subjects are extremely convinced to attend such kind of courses in future while 41% were moderate in attending these courses. Interestingly, in Table 4.35, 88% subjects had the opinion that it should be an integral part of their syllabus. However, in making teaching pronunciation an integral component of their exams, only 17% of the subjects differs with the others that they slightly agreed with others which is clear from Table 4.36. Overall trend seems that teaching of pronunciation should be a part of examination so that it can also be evaluated as the other subjects are evaluated.

Table 4.32 Group A

Question No. 12. Were the rules to learn sounds of alphabet adequate to help you?

Values	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Moderately (4)	5	29.4	4.3529
Extremely (5)	12	70.6	
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.33 Group A

Question No. 13. Were the instruction regarding word stress, liaison, assimilation and elision enough?

Values	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Slightly moderate (3)	1	5.9	4.5882
Moderately (4)	14	82.4	
Extremely (5)	2	11.8	
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.34 Group A

Question No. 14. Would you like to attend this kind of course in future?

Values	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Moderately (4)	7	41.2	4.7059
Extremely (5)	10	58.8	
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.35 Group A

Question No. 15. Do you think this course should be an integral part of English syllabus?

Values	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Moderately (4)	2	11.8	4.8824
Extremely (5)	15	88.2	
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.36 Group A

Question No. 16. Do you think that this course should be an integral part of examinations?

Values	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Slight moderate (3)	3	17.6	4.1765
Moderately (4)	8	47.1	
Extremely (5)	6	35.3	
Total	17	100.0	

4.5 Statistics of the Pronunciation Survey for Group B

4.5.1 Achievement of the Objectives (construct 1)

The opinions of the subjects of Group B regarding the first five question are as same as were for Group A. These questions are associated with the achievement of the objectives of the intervention or the course. Regarding the first four questions all the subjects have synonymous opinions that they neither had knowledge about phonemes, sounds of alphabet, symbols of sounds, word stress, liaison, assimilation and elision before the treatment nor after the treatment. Mostly, i.e., 52% to 70% subjects were agree that they were unfamiliar with the said phonetic and prosodic features before and after the course as it is given in Table 4.37 to 4.40. While 29% to 47% have the opinions that they had slightly knowledge about phonemes, sounds of alphabet, symbols of sounds, word stress, liaison, assimilation and elision before and after the conducting of this study.

This trend is contrary to results of the Pronunciation Survey for Group A where most of the subjects had not knowledge about the said features but after the treatment they were able to recognize and pronounce the said phonetic and prosodic features.

The results shown in Table 4.41 indicate that the subjects of Group B were confident to pronounce correctly the problematic words they had studied. Not at all $f=3$, 17.6%, slightly $f=9$, 52%, slightly moderate $f=5$, 29%. It means that implicit instruction also made the subject confident in performing the target pronunciation. However, explicit phonetic and phonological instruction affected outstandingly compared to implicit phonetic and phonological instruction.

Table 4.37 Group B

Question No. 1. Did you know the phonemes before this course?

Scale	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Not at all (1)	11	64.7	1.3529
Slightly (2)	6	35.3	
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.38 Group B

Question No. 2. Did you know the sounds of the Alphabet of English before this course?

Scale	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Not at all (1)	12	70.6	1.2941
Slightly (2)	5	29.4	
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.39 Group B

Question No. 3. Did you know the symbols of the sounds before this course?

Scale	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Not at all (1)	12	70.6	1.2941
Slightly (2)	5	29.4	
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.40 Group B

Question No. 4. Do you know about word stress, liaison, assimilation and elision?

Scale	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Not at all (1)	9	52.9	1.4706
Slightly (2)	8	47.1	
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.41 Group B

Question No. 5. How much are you confident to pronounce correctly the problematic words you have studied?

Scale	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Not at all (1)	3	17.6	2.1176
Slightly (2)	9	52.9	
Slightly Moderate (3)	5	29.4	
Total	17	100.0	

4.5.2 Assessment of the Instruction (construct two)

Regarding Question No. 6 most of the subjects of Group B were moderate in ranking the learning by practice because 58.8% subjects thought that the learning by practice was good idea. Table 4.42 presents, i.e., not at all $f=1$, 5.9%, slightly $f=2$, 11.8%, slightly moderate $f=10$, 58.8%, moderately $f=4$, 23.5%. Overall trend indicates that the learning by practice was an effective method to moderate extent. In Table 4.43 the opinions

regarding Question No. 7 are not similar to the opinions about Question No. 6 to some extent because here the statistics can be seen as under: Not at all $f=4$, 23.5%, slightly $f=9$, 52.9%, slightly moderate $f=4$, 23.5%. Most of the subjects thought that the learning by practice was a good idea and the use of the digital dictionary helped them moderately.

Table 4.42 Group B

Chapter 2 Question No. 6. Do you think learning by practice was a good idea?

Scale	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Not at all (1)	1	5.9	
Slightly (2)	2	11.8	
Slightly Moderate (3)	10	58.8	3.0000
Moderately (4)	4	23.5	
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.43 Group B

Question No. 7 Did the use of the digital dictionary help you in performing correct pronunciation?

Scale	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Not at all (1)	4	23.5	
Slightly (2)	9	52.9	
Slightly Moderate (3)	4	23.5	2.0000
Total	17	100.0	

Questions No 8 and 9 were about the efficacy of the listening and speaking practice. The majority of the subjects of Group B thought that the listening and speaking practice was not enough which could help their speaking and listening skills as it is presented in Table 4.44 and 4.45. Not at all $f=7$, 41.2%, slightly $f=5$, 29.4%, slightly moderate $f=5$, 29.4% and Not at all $f=4$, 23.5%, slightly $f=9$, 52.9%, slightly moderate $f=4$, 23.5%. It indicates that to improve the speaking and listening skills more practice was needed.

Table 4.44 Group B

Question No. 8 Was the listening practice was enough to help in improving your speaking?

Scale	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Not at all (1)	7	41.2	
Slightly (2)	5	29.4	
Slightly Moderate (3)	5	29.4	1.8824
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.45 Group B

Question No. Q 9 Was the speaking practice was enough to help in improving your speaking?

Scale	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Not at all (1)	4	23.5	
Slightly (2)	9	52.9	
Slightly Moderate (3)	4	23.5	2.0000
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.46 and 4.47 presents that the questions 10-11 were about the opinions of the subjects whether they thought that the course was easy and interesting. Mostly, it was agreed upon that the course was easy and interesting. Slightly moderate $f=5$, 29.4%, moderately $f=10$, 58.8%, extremely $f=2$, 11.8% and slightly moderate $f=4$, 23.5%, moderately $f=12$, 70.6%, extremely $f=1$, 5.9%. All this statistic shows that overall all the subjects of Group B thought the course easy and interesting.

Table 4.46 Group B

Question No. 10 Was the course interesting?

Scale	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Slightly Moderate (3)	5	29.4	3.8235
Moderately (4)	10	58.8	
Extremely (5)	2	11.8	
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.47 Group B

Question No. 11 Was the course easy?

Scale	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Slightly Moderate (3)	4	23.5	3.8235
Moderately (4)	12	70.6	
Extremely (5)	1	5.9	
Total	17	100.0	

The statistics shown in Table 4.48 and 4.49 indicates that the discussions and practices for speaking and improvement in knowledge about word stress, liaison, assimilation and elision were not enough. Majority of the subjects of Group B had opinions that the discussions and practices were too little to change the situation. Not at all $f=4$, 23.5%, slightly $f=11$, 64.7%, slightly moderate $f=1$, 5.9%, moderately $f=1$, 5.9 and Not at all $f=4$, 23.5%, slightly $f=12$, 70.6%, slightly moderate $f=1$, 5.9%.

Table 4.48 Group B

Question No. 12 Were the discussions were helpful in improving your speaking?

Scale	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Not at all (1)	4	23.5	1.9412
Slightly (2)	11	64.7	
Slightly Moderate (3)	1	5.9	
Moderately (4)	1	5.9	
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.49 Group B

Question No. 13 Were all the practices were helpful in increasing knowledge about word stress, liaison, assimilation and elision?

Scale	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Not at all (1)	4	23.5	1.8235
Slightly (2)	12	70.6	
Slightly Moderate (3)	1	5.9	
Total	17	100.0	

4.5.3 Suggestions for the Improvement (construct three)

Looking at the questions 14-16 in Table 4.50 to 4.52, it can be concluded that all the subjects of Group B were agreed that they would like to attend the course in future if they might have chance and the course about pronunciation teaching should be the part of their syllabus and assessment system. Table 4.50 shows moderately $f=10$, 58.8%, extremely $f=7$, 41.2%. Table 4.51 shows and moderately $f=2$, 11.8%, extremely $f=15$, 88.2%. In Table 4.52, the figures are: moderately $f=4$, 23.5%, extremely $f=13$, 76.5%. This trend is similar to the trend of Group A for the conducted course of pronunciation teaching.

Table 4.50 Group B

Question No. 14 Would you like to attend this kind of course in future?

Scale	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Moderately (4)	10	58.8	4.4118
Extremely (5)	7	41.2	
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.51 Group B

Question No. 15 Do you think this course should be an integral part of English syllabus?

Scale	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Moderately (4)	2	11.8	4.8824
Extremely (5)	15	88.2	
Total	17	100.0	

Table 4.52 Group B

Question No. 16 Do you think that this course should be an integral part of examinations

Scale	<i>f</i>	%	<i>M</i>
Moderately (4)	4	23.5	4.7647
Extremely (5)	13	76.5	
Total	17	100.0	

4.6 The Findings of the Study

4.6.1 The Findings about Intelligibility

The current study comprises, two main independent variables: the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction and the implicit phonetic and phonological instruction, and two dependent variables: intelligibility and comprehensibility. As it is discussed above that two hypotheses were made to achieve the objectives of the study. One hypothesis was regarding intelligibility and the other related to comprehensibility. The subjects for manipulation were divided into two experimental groups: one for the explicit instruction and the other for the implicit instruction. The tools for measurement were also two: Likert's scale was used to measure the intelligibility and the IELTS listening test was used to assess the comprehensibility. Both the groups were pretested and posttested. Then the results were analyzed by t-tests to see the difference among the means of the results of the tests.

Like the results of the Abshire (2006) and DeBoer (2003) in their studies, the results of the pretests of both of the groups of the current study were according to the expectation because, in pretests, it might expected that there would be no difference between the results of the two groups and it means the groups were made homogeneous in every aspect to a great extent. Otherwise, the results of pretests might be different from each other. Furthermore, homogeneity of the results in the pretests between the groups in the current study was an evidence that the formation of the groups was based on the equality of variances among the samples.

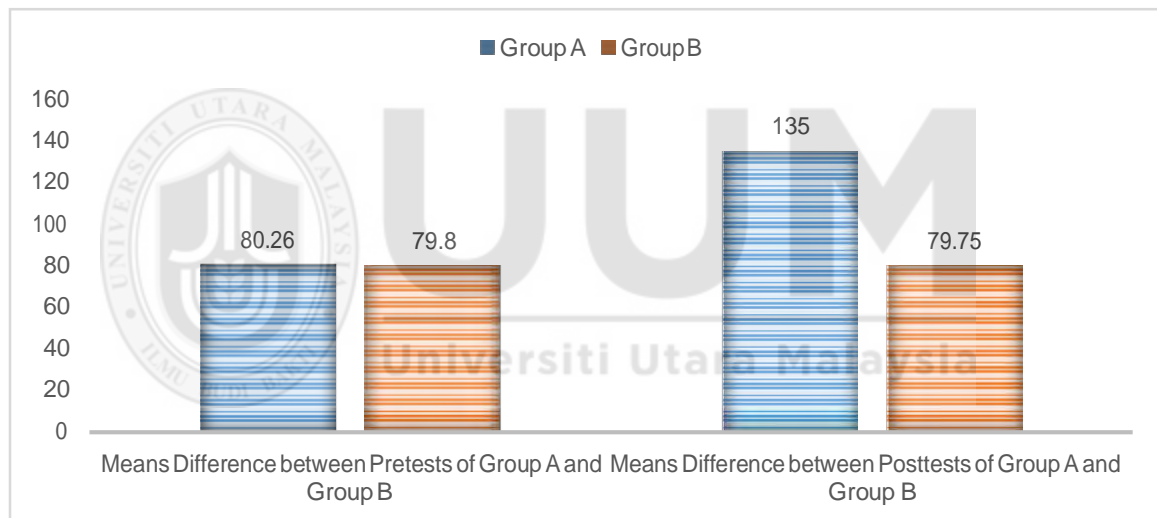


Figure 4.1 Inter Groups Means Difference for Intelligibility

It can be seen in Figure 4.1 that the results of the pretests of both of the groups are approximately the same with the difference ($80.26 - 79.8 = 0.46$) between the means of the results of the tests. The similar result can be seen from the statistics presented in Table 4.2 ($.146 > 0.05$). Therefore, the results were according the expectations and they provided the evidence that the groups were equal in their academic status about English language proficiency. However, the results of the posttests of the groups were expected to

be contrary to the results of the pretests. Like Figure 4.1, Table 4.4 indicates the significant difference between the means of the results of both groups ($.000 < 0.05$). Here, the change in the intelligibility of the subjects was anticipated due to the two different independent variables. The explicit instruction was predicted to be more effective than the implicit instruction to prove the postulated hypothesis in improving intelligibility. Thus, the difference between the means of the results of the posttests of both the groups is undisguised. The results of the current study are similar to the studies of Saito (2011; 2007) with the difference that the current study also focused on the suprasegmental features of English language while his studies focused only on the segmental phonology. Abshire (2006) too presented the similar results but on phonemic segmentation.

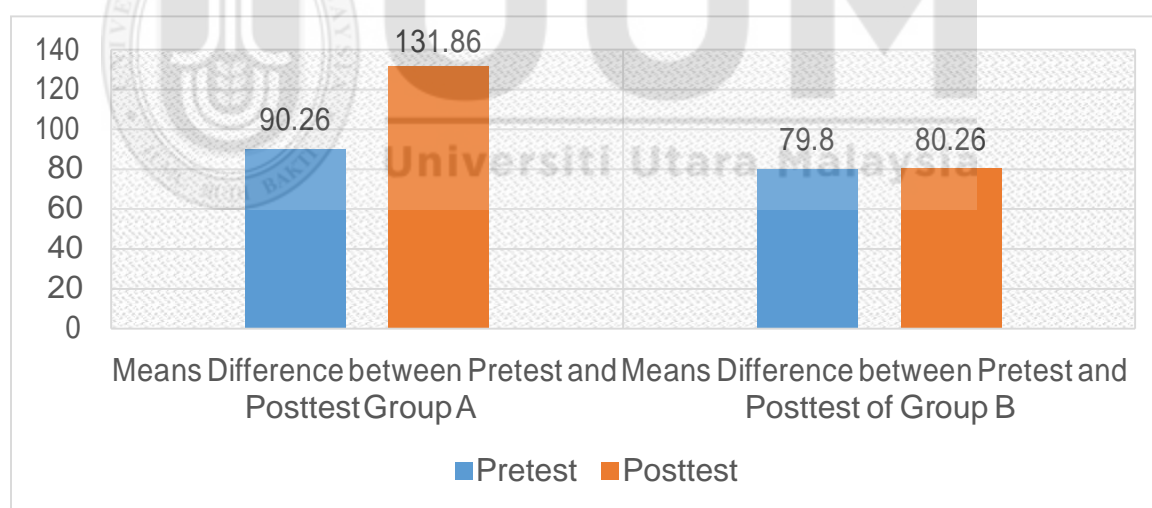


Figure 4.2 Intra Groups Means Difference for Intelligibility

In Figure 4.2, the results were compared intra groups: the pretest versus the posttest of Group A and the pretest and the posttest of Group B. The results of the pretest and the posttest of Group A showed great difference between their means as was presented in

Table 4.7 ($.000 < 0.05$). The comparison of the intra group is similar to the results comparison by “the one-group pretest–posttest design” (Gay et al. 2012, p. 277) where one group is pretested then posttested after treatment. So, if one considers only these results, one can see that the treatment of the explicit instruction proved effective in enhancing intelligibility. However, the intra Group B’s results are dissimilar to the Group A’s results. The difference between the means of the pretest and the posttest of Group B is not prominent. It means that the achievement level of Group B was same as it was before the treatment. The similar statistics was presented in Table 4.10 ($758 > 0.05$). Thus, the treatment of the implicit instruction did not only prove to be less effective compared to the explicit instruction but also it proved less effective within the group to improve intelligibility. Kashiwagi et al. (2005) provided evidence of the positive effectiveness of the explicit instruction over the implicit instruction. However, the dependent variable of their study was reading a passage. The explicit instruction improved the ability of the subjects of their study. It means their reading was more intelligible after the treatment.

Conversely, these results are produced by paired samples t-test which are not as reliable as the results of the independent sample t-test because they can occur due to course of time or some systematic reasons, for example, maturity (James & Schaie 2001). That is why there should be two groups to see the clear difference between the two independent variables. As discussed above, the current study consisted of two groups for two different independent variables and the comparison between the results of both of the groups is given in Figure 4.1. The inter group’s means difference and intra group’s means difference confirm the hypothesis: “The intermediate Pakistani English learners who

receive the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction are better in intelligibility than the learners who receive the implicit instruction". The results of the posttest show that proficiency level of Group A's intelligibility in pretest was 26% that increased to 47%. It indicates that the Group A's intelligibility level improved from poor level better level.

4.6.2 The Findings about Comprehensibility

Comprehensibility was the second dependent variable to see the effects of the independent variables: the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction and the implicit phonetic and phonological instruction. The detail of the analysis of the results is stated above. However, a clearer view is needed to know about the results. Figure 4.2 provides a vivid picture that the results of the pretests of both the groups are not different. They indicate the equality of the groups in their potential for comprehensibility. The little difference of $(8.8 - 6.2 = 2.6)$ presented in Figure 4.3, may be due to chance or an external factor: such as the Group B's sound system of the speaking test was slower than the Group A's. Thus, probably, Group B felt difficulty in listening the sound of the test to some extent. However, the difference is not so significant that can affect the equality the subjects because F difference statistics $(1.48 > 0.05)$ too supports the said notion. The analysis produced by the independent t-test also shows non-significant difference between these pretests as the two-tailed significance is equal to .148, $(.148 > 0.05)$ which is bigger than P-value 0.05. Actually, the results were according to expectation as it should be in the pretests of groups.

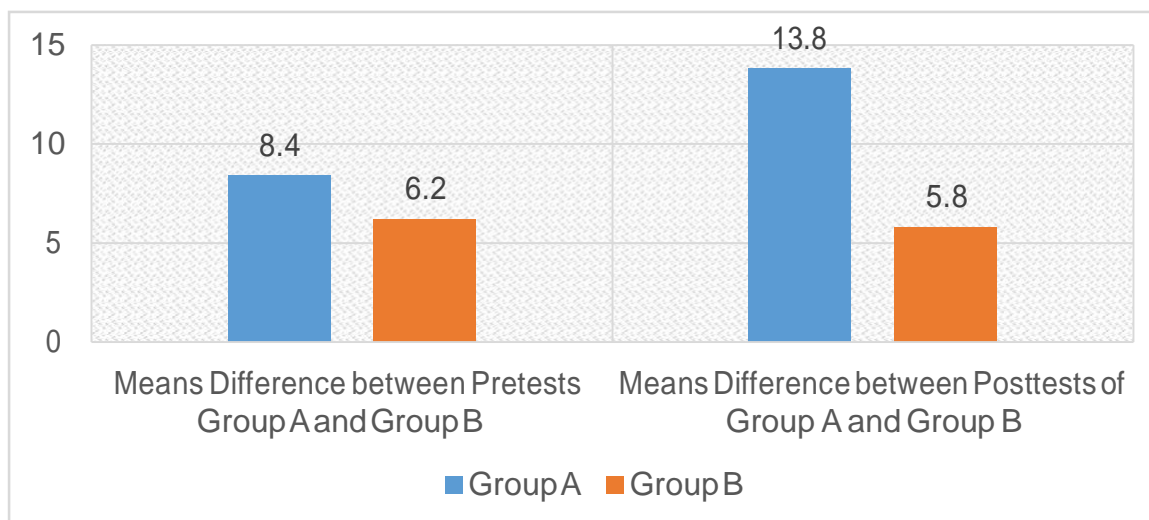


Figure 4.3 Inter Groups Means Difference for Comprehensibility

The means difference ($13.8 - 5.8 = 8$) between the posttests of the groups verify the efficacy of the special cause treated to Group A. Here, again the implicit instruction did not change the behavior of the subjects regarding comprehensibility. The level of their comprehensibility of English could not be improved. While the subjects of Group A treated with the explicit instruction proved more proficient than the Group B's. Further, the results of the current study are supported by the study carried out by Gordon et al. (2013) who also focused on improving the intelligibility as well as comprehensibility by the explicit instruction. They proved that the explicit instruction is more effective way for enhancing intelligibility and comprehensibility than the other traditional ways. The results of Couper's (2003) study are similar with the current study's results in which the subjects of the study were intervened with the explicit instruction incorporated into the syllabus of adult learners.

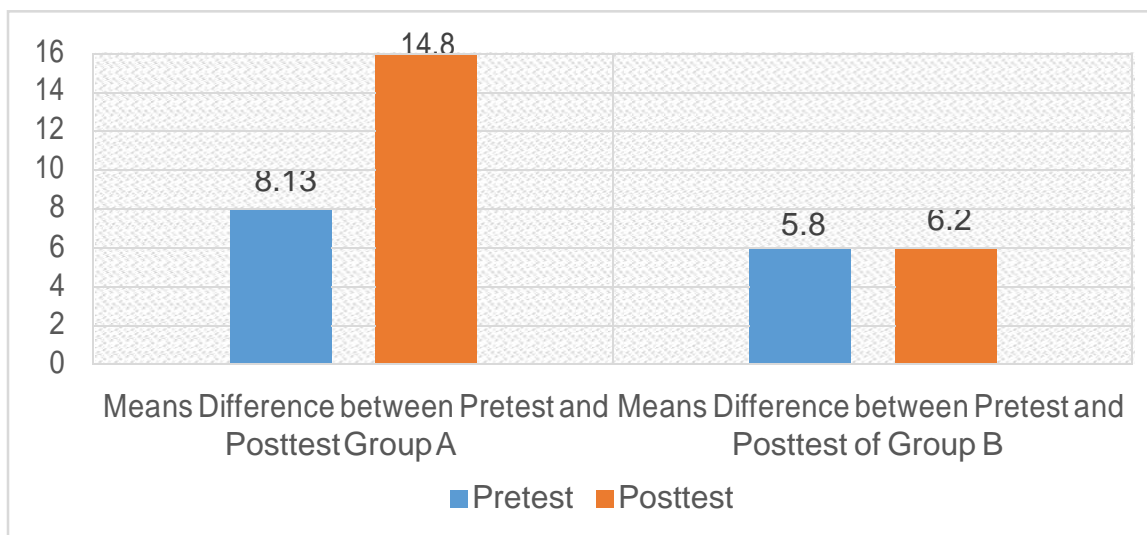


Figure 4.4 Intra Groups Means Difference for Comprehensibility

The intra groups means difference for comprehensibility, given in Figure 4.4, presents the contrast of the results within groups. The results of the pretest and the posttest of Group A for comprehensibility are similar to those of intelligibility. The difference ($14.8 - 8.13 = 6.67$) between the means of the results of both the tests testifies the assumption of effectiveness of the explicit instruction with the similar statistics presented in Table 4.17 ($.000 < 0.05$). It shows the contrast in the results before and after the treatments. However, the statistics provided by Table 4.20 ($.733 > 0.05$) indicates no significant difference means of the pretest and posttest of Group B. The results tell that the implicit instruction could not change the subjects' ability in their comprehensibility because the results before the treatment and after the treatment are same. The above discussion highlights that the explicit instruction was more effective than the implicit instruction in improving comprehensibility. So, the second hypothesis "The intermediate Pakistani English learners who receive the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction are better

in comprehensibility than the learners who receive the implicit instruction" has been verified.

The results of the study can be looked from another angle apart from the postulated hypotheses. Is explicit instruction effective both for the segmental and suprasegmentally features? Some studies (such as Papachristou, 2011) indicate that the implicit instruction is more effective in improving the suprasegmental features than the explicit instruction. Looking at Figures 4.5 and 4.6, it can be seen that the explicit instruction was less effective in enhancing the suprasegmental ability (fluency etc.) of the subjects of the study compared to the segmental ability. This result is similar to the findings of Gordon, et al. (2013) "This supports research which has shown that a lack of focus on form can develop fluency" that imitation, skill and drill, and practice may improve fluency (suprasegmental ability).

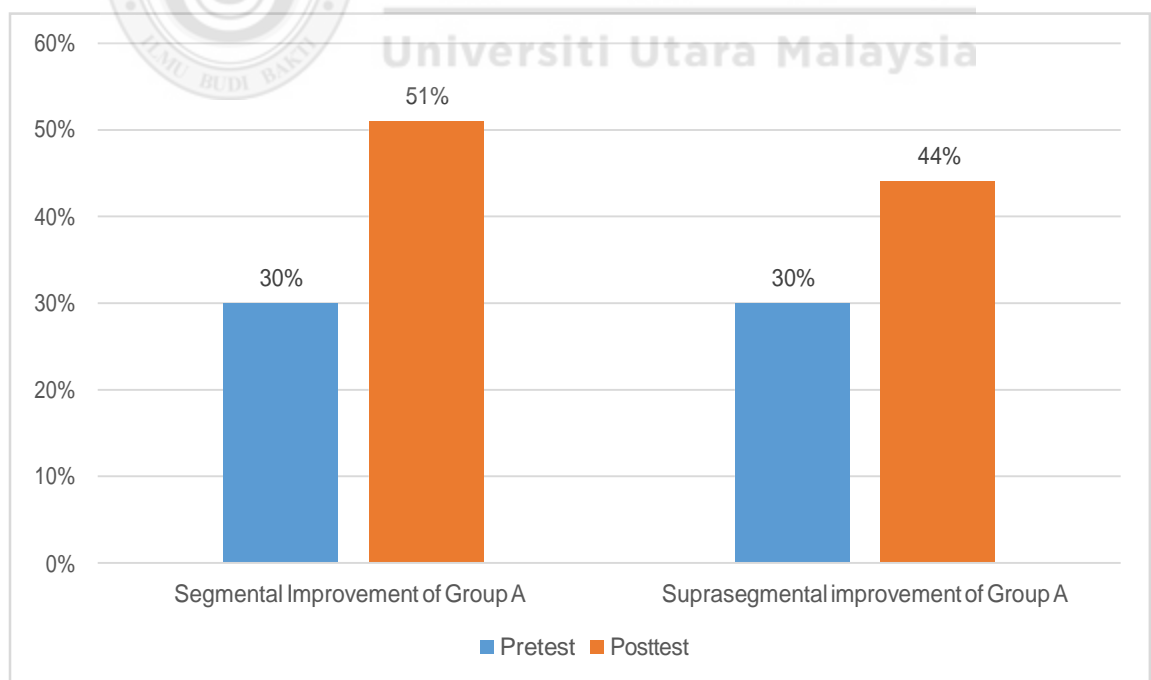


Figure 4. 5 The Level of Improvement after Treatment (explicit instruction)

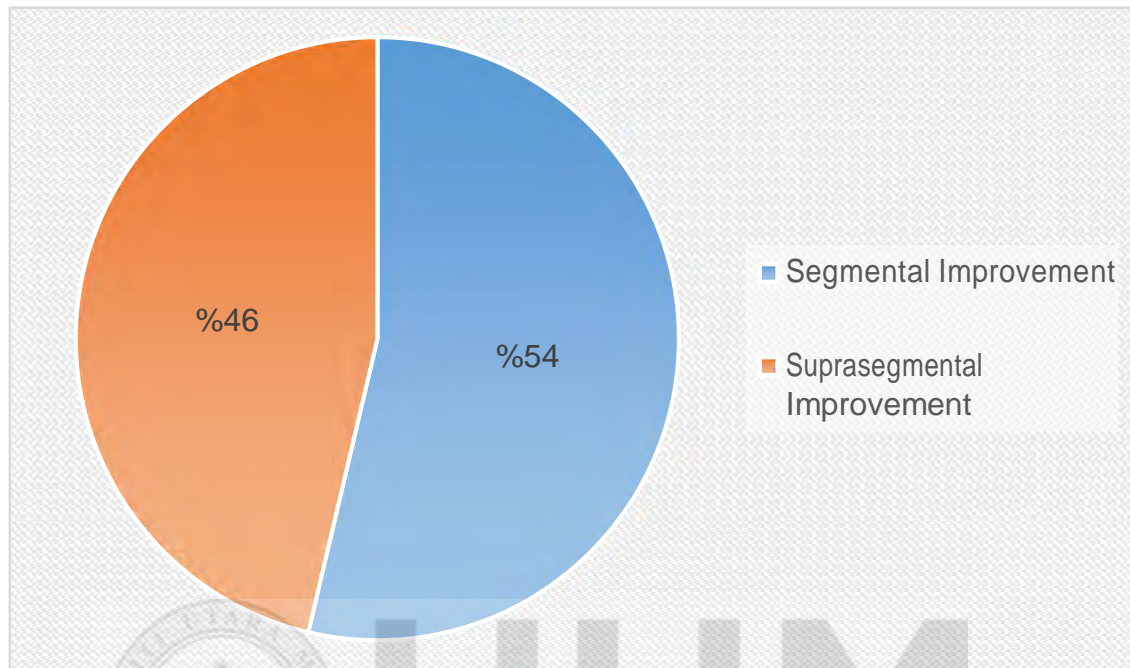


Figure 4.6 The Difference between the Segmental and Suprasegmental Improvement

Another question can be raised that which of the dependent variables of the study was more influenced by the independent variable, i.e., explicit instruction. Here, again it can be assessed by looking at Figure 4.7 and 4.8 that the intelligibility of the subjects of the current study was more influenced than the comprehensibility. The implications stated above have been discussed in detail in Chapter Five 5.3.

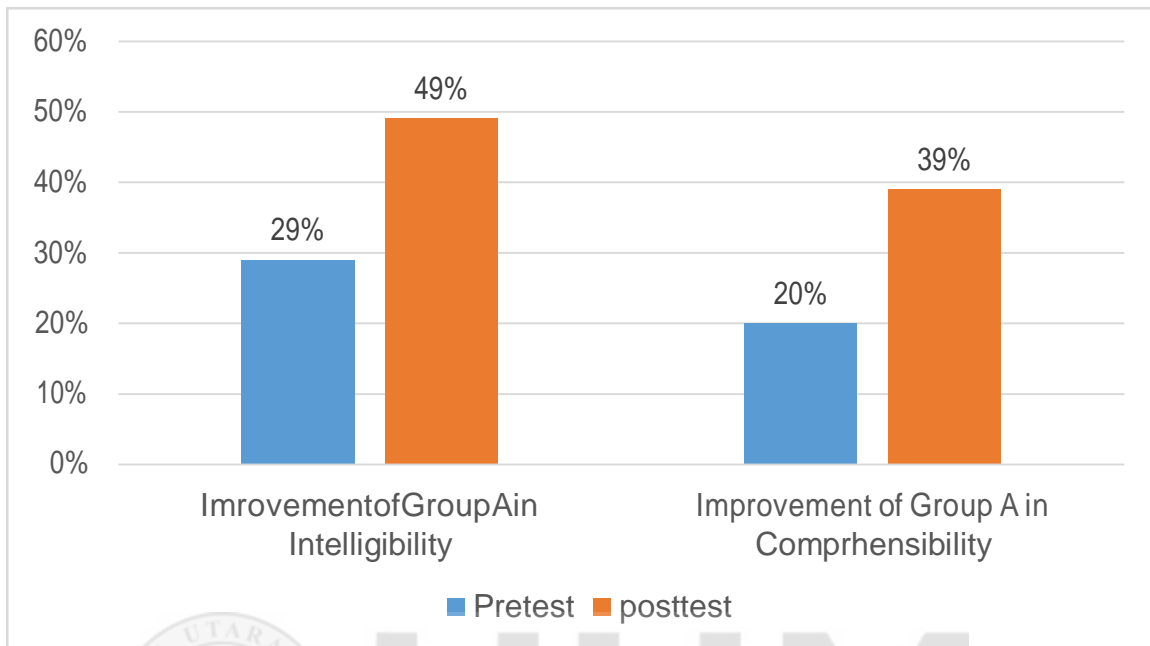


Figure 4.7 The Level of Improvement in Intelligibility and Comprehensibility after Treatment (explicit instruction)

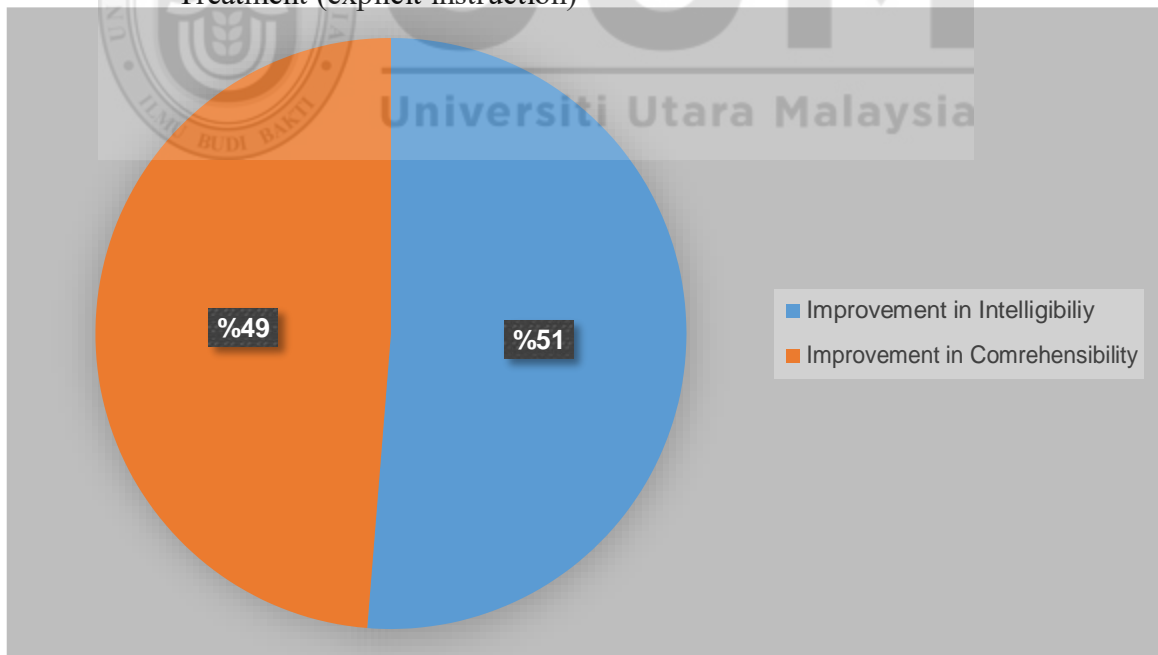


Figure 4.8 The Difference between the Intelligibility and comprehensibility Improvement

Overall findings through the data analysis disclose that the explicit phonetic instruction (independent variable) was more effective compared to the implicit instruction in enhancing intelligibility and comprehensibility of Pakistani English speakers. There were significant difference between the means of the results of the posttests of Group A and Group B. The achievement of Group A in the pretest of comprehensibility was 17% which increased to 37% in the posttest. It shows that the improvement of Group B in comprehensibility became better after the treatment.

4.6.3 The Findings about the Opinions of the Subjects of Group A

Most of the subjects of Group A agreed that they had not knowledge about phonemes, sounds of the English alphabet, word stress, liaison, assimilation and elision before the conducting of this study. However, they believed that they could pronounce correctly the problematic words which were taught to them during the study. Similarly, majority of the subjects thought that learning by themselves (metacognitive approach) attracted them. The learning materials and the methodology utilized in the current study, such as digital dictionary, videos and the method of connection between sounds and letters were also liked by majority of the subjects. They also found the course of pronunciation teaching (treatment) interesting and easy to understand. However, the course might be improved so that it could be more effective in different contexts. The instruction and rules of phonetics and phonology were moderately sufficient but enough to fulfill the needs of the current study. Most of the subjects were extremely convinced that they would join such kind of course in future and teaching of pronunciation should be a vital component of

their routine syllabus. They viewed that the pronunciation of English should be assessed as the other subjects are assessed. The results of the said survey were similar to the Couper's (2003) findings where the subjects of the study were agreed on the effectiveness of the explicit teaching of pronunciation and the approach that was used in that study.

4.6.4 The Findings about the Opinions of the Subjects of Group B

Most the subjects of Group B were unaware about the phonemes and symbols of alphabets before the treatment and they even had not enough knowledge about these features after the treatment. This fact is not conflicting to results of the Pronunciation Survey for Group A where most of the subjects had not familiarity about the said features before the treatment but after the treatment, they were able to recognize and pronounce the said phonetic and prosodic features.

Most of the subjects were agree that the learning by practice was an effective method to some extent and they were in fovour of more practice. It means that the practice benefited them in their learning the pronunciation. The results also indicate that the speaking and listening skills can be improved by practice but it again demands more time than the time spent in the current study. Overall, all the subjects of Group B thought that the course was easy and interesting and it should be an integral part of their syllabus and examination system. This trend is similar to the opinions of the subjects of Group A.

4.6 Summary

This chapter contains the two independent variables: the explicit instruction versus the implicit instruction and two dependent variables: intelligibility and comprehensibility manipulating two homogeneous groups: Group A and Group B. It also discussed that there were two instruments that were used to measure the dependent variables in the pretests and the posttests of both of the groups. This chapter presents the results analyzed by SPSS using independent sample t-test for the inter groups and paired samples t-test for the intra groups analysis. The inter groups results showed the more positive effects of the explicit instruction than the implicit instruction. The results of the pretests of both the groups were same but in the posttests the results were changed that the group who received the explicit instruction showed outstanding results. The group who received the implicit instruction could not display remarkable changes in the results even after the treatment. In the intra groups' results, only Group A who was treated with the explicit instruction was able to show better performance after receiving the treatment. While the results of Group B, who was manipulated with the implicit instruction, were same before and after the treatment. Which feature, segmental or suprasegmental improved and which ability of the subjects was more influenced by the manipulation have been discussed in Chapter Five 5.3. It presented the findings about the pronunciation survey with the indication that most of the subjects of Group A and Group B liked the course (treatment) and desired to participate in future in such kind of a course. They also recommended that the teaching of pronunciation should be part of their syllabus and examinations.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter includes discussions, conclusions and recommendations. It starts from the overview of the various topics: focusing the Implications, legal issues, some ethical issues and strengths of the study. It also exposes the limitations of the study and provides some suggestions to the stakeholders, teachers, trainers and learners to achieve the targets in acceptable intelligibility and comprehensibility.

5.2 The Implications of the Study

5.2.1 The Effectiveness of the Explicit Instruction on the Segmental and Suprasegmental Features.

Some researchers such as Papachristou (2011) conducted the study to see the effects of the explicit instruction on the production of vowels sound. Papachristou (2011) measured the segmental and prosodic production with the result that the group who received the implicit instruction was more fluent than the group who received the explicit instruction. His finding convinced the researcher to think about the equal effectiveness of the explicit instruction on segmental and suprasegmental features. Therefore, the researcher probed the results beyond the apparent results for which the study was intended.

Thus, the results of the segmental features and the suprasegmental features were separated. As it has been shown in Chapter Four Figure 4.5 that Group A improved in segmental features (from 30% to 51%). However, looking at the improvement of the

suprasegmental features that is from 30% to 44%, it can be concluded that the improvement in suprasegmental features is less to the segmental improvement because the difference between the both features is 9% as it has been provided Chapter Four, Figure 4.6. Consequently, it can be said that the segmental and suprasegmental features are not dependent on each other. Additionally, there is indication that the explicit instruction affects the segmental features more than the suprasegmental features. For this purposes, further investigation can be carried out with the assumption that the subjects who receive the traditional or the implicit instruction perform better in suprasegmental speech production than the subjects who receive the explicit instruction.

5.2.2 The Effectiveness of the Explicit Instruction on Intelligibility and Comprehensibility.

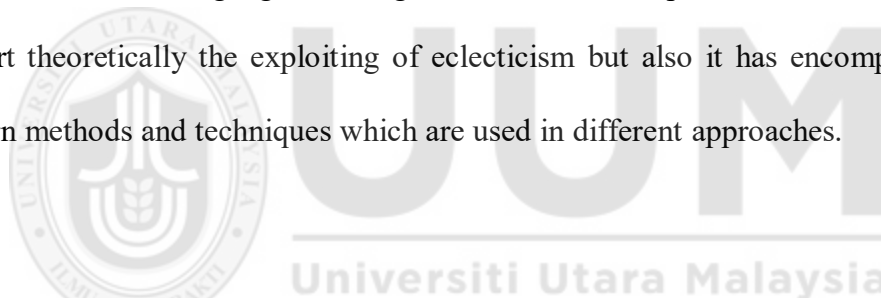
Many studies have provided evidences of effectiveness of the explicit instruction on intelligibility and comprehensibility: “Is the explicit instruction effective equally for intelligibility and comprehensibility?” Gordon, et al. (2013) and Rahbar, et al. (2013) investigated whether the explicit instruction can improve comprehensibility while Saito (2007; 2011), Papachristou (2011) and Khanbeiki (2015) focused on intelligibility. Although, Gordon et al. (2013) used two independent variables: segmental instruction and suprasegmental instruction but on the dependent variable which was comprehensibility. The focus of the current study was on two dependent variables, i.e., intelligibility and comprehensibility with two kinds of manipulated variables, i.e., segmental instruction and suprasegmental instruction.

Thus, the researcher was motivated whether the manipulated variables of the current study equally affects intelligibility and comprehensibility. The percentage is shown in Chapter Four, Figure 4.7 about the level of intelligibility and comprehensibility before and after the manipulation. The level of intelligibility of Group A before the intervention was 29% which was increased to 49% and the level of comprehensibility enlarged from 20% to 39%. The difference between both the dependent variables is only 49% and 51% = 2% as it is figured out in Chapter Four, Figure 4.8. The variation is minor but it is equal, to the great extent. The equality of the results regarding intelligibility and comprehensibility points out that both the variables are dependent on each other, they cannot be considered separately. If intelligibility improves, comprehensibility also improves. However, it has to be decided which effects the other first. To probe the vivid results, two groups can be intervened independently with the same independent variables: the explicit phonetic and phonological instruction but with different dependent variables. One group will be assessed on the base of intelligibility and the other on comprehensibility.

5.2.3 Explicit Phonetic and Phonological Instruction and Computer Assistant Language Learning.

As it is cited above that the explicit instruction includes teaching of segmentation, blending, metalevel activities, matching, isolation, addition, deletion and substitution and uptake and practice (Abshire, 2006; Serna, 2006; Yopp & Yopp, 2000). All these activities were performed on computers using different kind of software and

computational devices. For, example, blending, matching and uptake practices were done on computer using Cambridge Advance Learners'' Dictionary which was installed on computers. Furthermore, all the procedure of assessment of the pretests and posttests were carried out through software, i.e., SPSS, WavPlayer to Control Sounds in Figure 3.2, Paddle Machine to Control the WavPlayer in Figure 3.3 and Paddle Machine in Figure 3.4. All these equipment were related to computer in some way. It can be said that Computer Assistant Language Learning (CALL) is a component of explicit phonetic and phonological instruction. Lee (2008), Neri, Cucchiarinin and Strik (2002), Chapple (2003) and Liu & Hung (2016) claim the positive effectiveness of CALL in teaching pronunciation and language learning. Therefore, the explicit instruction did not only support theoretically the exploiting of eclecticism but also it has encompassed a lot of modern methods and techniques which are used in different approaches.



5.2.4 English is no more a Compromised Candidate in Pakistan

Khalique (2006) contends that since the creation Pakistan, it was promised by every government of Pakistan that English will be replaced by Urdu with the passage of time and till that time English should be adopted as a “compromised candidate” (p. 101). But that time neither came and nor will come because the status and role of English is quite different in Pakistan compared to the some other post colonies of the British Empire. For example, Malaysia and Singapore restructured their systems including language systems in the postmodern/postcolonial era according the local and global needs. Malaysia, in postmodernism, used “Bahasa Melayu” as a medium of instruction in all the national educational institutions and allowed to use English in the private higher educational

institutions and in the offshore campuses with the condition, that Malay would be the compulsory subject in these institutions (Grapragasem, Krishnan & Mansor, 2014). Malaysia transgressed the realm of the dependency of English linguistic imperialism and entered the boundary of the domain of globalization. Singapore was not reluctant as was Pakistan to adopt English as a utilitarian tool for getting access in marketplace. Therefore, Singapore approved “East-West model” to attain the English language competence so-called “West” competence along with indigenous languages; Chinese, Tamil and Malay so-called “East” (Boon & Gopinathan, 2006). Still language controversy exists in Pakistan; which language should be promoted as a national language, as an official language and the destiny of other major languages is undecided. Pakistan could not cross the shift of the dependence after modernism to dive into the ocean of globalization and it can be said that it is dictated by its colonist country and keeps strengthening the grip of linguistic imperialism.

After completion of the current study, it was revealed that the intangible riddle of incorrect pronunciation could be resolved by the teaching of pronunciation with the appropriate methodology, practice and theory. While the other skills, i.e., reading and writing can easily be attained according to the required targets. Therefore, the echoes for replacing English with Urdu should be silenced and English must be adopted as a second language in Pakistan as Singapore did. The compulsion of English should be accepted openly instead of taking it as a “compromised candidate.

5.3 The Strengths of the Study

5.3.1 The Pioneer Study in the Pakistani Context

Many studies regarding the pronunciation problems have been conducted in the Pakistani context. All these studies indicate the hurdles and problems in the way of the required intelligibility and comprehensibility. For example, Malghani & Bano (2014) specify that local languages affect as L1 in SLA. Reham et al. (2012), Khan and Qadir (2012) and Rehman et al. (2012) express that some sounds of English are problematic for correct pronunciation goals. Jabeen (2013) puts that 16 years education cannot fill the gap of unintelligibility and incomprehensibility in Pakistan due to marginalization of pronunciation teaching. Khan (2011) mentions six hindrances that cause non-standard pronunciation. Chandio, Khan and Samiullah (2013) and Nawab (2012) regret the inactiveness of Pakistani English learner in language classroom. Bashiruddin and Qayyum (2014) and Howlader (2011) argue that the untrained and unqualified teachers are responsible for the bad condition of pronunciation. Teevno (2011), Nawab (2012) and Warsi (2004) reveal that one of the hurdles in the required intelligibility and comprehensibility is lack of authentic materials for pronunciation teaching. Ahmad and Rao (2012) argue that the washback effects are main cause in attaining the targets about communicative competence.

All the authors, stated above, mention the obstacles, which are responsible for unintelligibility and incomprehensibility in Pakistan. The current study would be a pioneer work to resolve the issues regarding intelligibility and comprehensibility in the Pakistani context practically. This was a short time study, which was effective to change the intelligibility and comprehensibility level of the participants of the study to a better

level and it can lead to a big project to solve the problems related to English pronunciation at national level.

5.3.2 An Efficient Way to Teach Correct Pronunciation in Pakistan

Surely, research works are milestones and landmarks to reach the terminal goals. The current study, lasted in two months with many legal and ethical issues. However, the positive effects of the study were immense in promotion of the correct pronunciation. If the government and stakeholders include the teaching of pronunciation explicitly in the national curriculum of Pakistan with clear objectives, setting out a serious enterprise with ultimate achievable goals, one can be sure, that the nontangible riddle of unintelligibility and comprehensibility can be resolved in months. The rules and regulations for teaching of correct pronunciation are not unlimited. Some cases may be exceptional which are not bound by any rules. Nevertheless, these exceptions can be too limited to be encircled. The studies conducted by Saito (2007; 2011), Papachristou (2011), Khanbeiki (2015) and Gordon et al. (2013) support this claim. Thus, the current study leads to a short way to reach the desired targets for teaching standard pronunciation in Pakistan.

5.3.3 More Visible Targets in Intelligibility and Comprehensibility

In the explicit instruction, the objectives are clear, the responsibility is fixed on learners instead of only on teachers, the errors are pointed out, the rules are applied, the norms are derived and structures are rehearsed. Therefore, conducting such kind of enterprise makes

the targets more visible in achieving the required intelligibility and comprehensibility. The empirical works carried out by Abshire (2006), Pullen and Justice (2003) and Yopp and Yopp (2000) provide evidences that the explicit phonetic instruction made the targets more perceptible. Thus, the current study made English language teachers, stakeholders and learners hopeful in achieving the targets about correct pronunciation. Thus, the stakeholders should launch the program based on the explicit instruction.

5.3.4 Two Experimental Groups' Research

Mostly, in experimentation, experimental and control group design is adopted. In such design, one group receives special treatment while the other receives traditional treatment or receives nothing. Thus, one group feels that they are special ones while the other group feels inferiority. This situation can motivate the former and discourage the later. It also threatens the internal validity that is called "reactive arrangements" (Gay et al. 2012,). The rationale for the two experimental groups design has been justified in Chapter Three. Anyhow, this kind of design (experimental and control group) weakens the internal validity of study. Therefore, in the current study every group received special treatment that nullled the "reactive arrangements" effects and resulted in the attainment of reliable outcomes to be generalized to the broad field.

5.3.5 Intelligibility is not a Buzzword

The status of English as an international language has grabbed the monopoly of the native English speakers. Now to speak native-like is not favoured by linguists, but to be acceptable intelligible speaker, is more desired than to be a native-like speaker. Hence, given the growing attention on intelligibility, it seems amazing to consider that intelligibility is only a slogan with the charge that it has no scope in applied linguistics. The suspicion of Rajagopalan (2010) is unjustified regarding the attributions related to a language which is attributed with many adjectives such as beautiful, ugly and primitive. Thus, Munro (2011) contends that the notions about intelligibility in teaching of pronunciation are undebatable. Though, Munro (2011) claims that “it almost enjoys the status of a hallowed pursuit” p. 11) Intelligibility is an ultimate prerequisite in human interface, whereas the costs of unintelligibility range from slight troublesomeness to matters of life or death. Thus, the current empirical study bears countless levels of significance in the promotion of much-touted notion in the contemporary research topics on second-language pronunciation teaching and in the debates of World Englishes.

5.4 The Limitations of the Study

5.4.1 A Semi Urban Circle of the Study

It has been already discussed in the section of the legal and ethical issues in Chapter Three that the selection of the population for the study was too difficult task because it was a pure experimental research where the treatment had to be manipulated for two months, so, the expanded population could make sampling impossible. A semi urban

population was logically selected so that the representation of the whole population of the country might be possible to some extent because majority of Pakistani schools are semi urban and are located in towns. If the population would have been taken from a rural area then the urban areas would have been neglected. Moreover, it was not possible to take subjects as a sample from different institutions. Therefore, Abshire (2006) and Saito (2007; 2011) adopted convenient sampling to void the said situation. Convenient sampling is threat to internal validity, which is called "selection-treatment interaction" (Marlow, 2010; Tavakoli, 2013). In the current study, the researcher had to be limited to a semi-urban area but the groups of the study were made through random sampling.

5.4.2 Students of Science (Biology) as Subjects of the Study

Another limitation of the current study was that sampling was carried out only from the science intermediate students (biology). It was due to ethical issues that the subjects might not be coerced to participate in a study especially when the researcher has authority over them. The researcher was a high rank officer in educational management. The participants could be forced to take in the study anyhow. However, ethically, the participants were free to make decision about the participation in the study. The science (biology) group of the intermediate class was ready to be the subjects of the study. However, both of the groups A and B were randomly selected out of 117 students. All the subjects were homogenous in their social status, academic achievement, grades, English language ability and age. Every group was consisted of 17 participants and it was not possible to take large number of participants due to the limited resources available in the

school, i.e., computers and other electrical devices. The number of sampling for the current study bigger was than the sampling of many studies such as Abshire (2006), Couper (2003), Saito (2007; 2011), Papachristou (2011), Beinhoff (2014), Kim (2008) and Gordon et al. (2013).

5.4.3 Male Only as Subjects of the Study

The third limitation of the current study was the gender of the subjects because the issue of intelligibility and comprehensibility is related to lifelong learning where adults are taught. Furthermore, the explicit phonetics instruction was suitable for the learners who already had English language proficiency to a limited extent so that they can be able to apply the rules to make correct pronunciation. Thus, the first compulsion was pedagogical to take adult subjects while the second compulsion was related to the social constraints. In Pakistani culture, mostly, female teachers are specified to teach adult female students. There is no permission for coeducation at intermediate level in many institutions. They are not allowed to get to gather at any cost. Thus, making mix groups with male and female was not possible because the researcher himself was male, so, taking the male subjects was the only way to carry on the study.

5.4.4 A Short Time Study

Some researchers conducted very short time experimentations such as Saito (2007) gave the treatment to the experimental group only for four hours. However, in the current

study the treatment was eight weeks (4 weeks for each) or 48 hour long, 24 for Group A and 24 hours for Group B. The treatment took two months (from January 2017 to February 2017). Although, all the activities were completed according to the schedule, yet the more time is more beneficial for the long time retention.

5.4.5 Change of the Instrument

It was proposed that the software "Pronunciation Coach" that was devised to score intelligibility, was to be used for the measurement of the level of intelligibility of the subjects of study. However, when conducting the pilot study, the software failed to be valid. It measured even meaningless words equal to the correct words. Thus, the instrumentation had to be replaced. The 9-point Likert scale was adopted to rate the level of intelligibility before and after the treatment. This scale also was used by many researchers such as Ary, et al. (2009), Gordon et al. (2013), Harding (2012), Lima (2011), Kim (2008), Venkatagiri, and Levis, (2007), Derwing and Munro (1997), Munro and Derwing (1994) Ruellot (2011), Sardegna (2011) and Saito (2011).

5.5 Recommendations

The negligence about teaching pronunciation is not a Pakistan specific phenomenon but it has been neglected globally (Derwing & Munro, 2005). It is not taught regularly like other subjects. It is assumed that it can be learnt eventually through the reading of English books and English Literature (Mansoor, 2005). It is not included in the reading

materials of English language resulting in no place for assessment of oral and aural skills in the formative or the summative exams (Rahman, 2014). For the promotion of correct pronunciation, which is needed locally and globally, some of the segmental and suprasegmental features should be included in the national curriculum of Pakistan. This practice has been done in New Zealand by explicitly integrating a pronunciation sub-syllabus within the inclusive syllabus as a full-time post-intermediate level ESOL course. It was strived to teach segmental and suprasegmental features systematically and explicitly with outstanding gains for the desired intelligibility and comprehensibility (Couper, 2003).

Oral communication skills have been ignored since the creation of Pakistan. The emphasis has been set on reading and writing skills only. There was even no mention of oral communication skills in any educational policy or curriculum. It was the first time that the importance of these skills were sensitized in the National Curriculum for English Language Grades I-XII, 2006 of Pakistan. It has set the benchmarks only for speaking skills that all the students would utilize proper communal and speculative bonds of spoken discourse for the operative verbal communication with people and in assemblies, in both casual and official situations. Nevertheless, it was too confession of ghettoization of these skills in this way:

It is acknowledged that presently all schools might not have the requisite resources and testing conditions appropriate for formal testing of oral communication skills. However, realizing the importance of these skills, these have been included explicitly in the curriculum (Curriculum for English Language Grades I-XII, 2006, p. 14).

The inclusion of these skills is totally a mere a statement when looking at the course books of English, for example, in the course book of the 5th grade “English 5” there are some short exercises with five sentences related to phonetics, but there is no other information about phonetic description. The teachers are unaware of phonetics (Gulamullah & Hilmi, 2017) and unable to teach this subject. Furthermore, the curriculum has also mentioned that these skills would not be assessed in the summative exams but the teachers could do formative assessment:

This will serve two purposes: 1) It will encourage the teachers to undertake the teaching and formative assessment of these skills at the classroom level; 2) Help schools in developing the required resources for formal testing of oral communication skills (Curriculum for English Language Grades I-XII, 2006, p. 14.

But teachers will not do formative assessment. They never did it and will not do because they are bound to prepare their students for exams and they will ignore speaking and listening skills in favor of reading and writing skills that are tested (Aftab, Qureshi & William, 2014). Besides, the said curriculum mentions only the speaking skill but not the listening skill. Thus, to achieve the required level of intelligibility and comprehensibility, some serious steps should have to be taken sensing the sensitivity of these abilities being a fundamental prerequisite of purposeful communication. In addition, these abilities should be a regular part of the summative assessment so that the behavior of teachers, learners and stakeholders toward these skills can be positively modified toward teaching of English.

Many recent commentaries have asserted that the English teachers in Pakistani schools are not qualified and well trained in their related subjects (Bashiruddin & Qayyum, 2014; Mahmood & Ghani, 2012; Shamim, 2011). With the help of some experts in English

language teaching, the researcher of the current study have provided the inventory of words, which are probably problematic for Pakistani English speakers. The current study has also utilized some of these words to teach the subjects of the study. The treatment of three hundred words, which were taught explicitly to Group A and implicitly to Group B, were included in the study. As the results indicated that 48 hour interventional programme made a distinct difference in the performance of the subjects of the study. Therefore, it is recommended that the Pakistani English teachers should be provided the training of such kind of problematic words adopting a shortcut way to achieve the goals set in the field of English pronunciation.

As mentioned above, the researcher has utilized the inventory of some special words to teach the subjects of the current study. These words can be sorted out by further formal investigation. In such kind of sorted out problematic words, it would be very easy to remove the hindrance in the way of the required intelligibility and comprehensibility. Saito (2007; 2011), Papachristou (2011) have pointed out some problematic English sounds in the Global contexts and Malghani and Bano (2014) and Rehman et al. (2012) proposed some wrongly pronounced English sounds in Pakistani context. Accordingly, some new researches may be launched to verify the provided inventory and to find new words in a wider range that might be considered problematic in the learning of correct pronunciation.

Many recent projects by Khan and Qadir (2012), Rehman et al. (2012), Teevno (2011) and Nawab (2012) have pointed out the pedagogical and linguistic problematic areas in the required intelligibility and comprehensibility in the Pakistani settings. The current research might be a first enterprise to attain the central requisite of intelligibility and

comprehensibility in the way of successful communication. The findings of this study can become a source of motivation for researchers to set out more investigation in the field of pronunciation. The government, policy makers and stakeholders should seriously pay heed upon the perennial communicative incompetence instead of lamenting on the severity of the incorrect pronunciation that has been faced by Pakistani nation since decades.

5.6 Conclusion

Teaching English Pronunciation is ghettoized globally. It is assumed that the oral and aural skills can be achieved eventually. In Pakistan too, the condition of Pronunciation is not satisfactory. Teachers and learners are forced to grant their attention only on the reading and writing skills that are assessed in the summative exams. Thus, Pakistani English learners face communicative problems. They are unintelligible to others and unable to understand others' message. The current study was a serious pursuit to fill the gap of intelligibility and comprehensibility in Pakistani context. The results of the study were not only coherent with the past studies' outcomes but also it was a pioneer study to find the solutions for the communicative problems as a whole. It has made the desired intelligibility and comprehensibility goals visible and approachable. It can cause motivation for government and the stakeholders to take serious steps to cure the inability of Pakistani English speakers for the purposeful communication. It can also induce phoneticians to set out further investigations related to the hollowed pursuit of intelligibility and comprehensibility in the broad field of Phonetics. It was a short time study with limited resources but it resulted in compelling outcomes that encouraged the

researches as well as the subjects of the study for further research. As a result, a remarkable change in the era of teaching English pronunciation can be brought about by the enterprise with various resources and conclusive strength. Teaching English pronunciation should be an integral component of the Pakistani national curriculum supported by all kind of helpful resources and it should be assessed as the other compulsory subjects are assessed. Although the current study has some limitations due to the social phenomenon, which is, sometimes, uncontrollable, yet it was a successful pursuit in pursuing its objectives regarding teaching pronunciation explicitly and implicitly.



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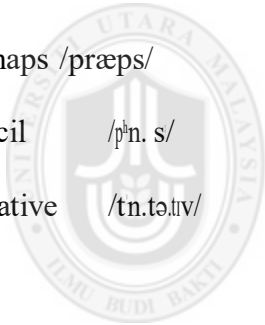
Appendices

Appendix A

Intelligibility Test for Pilot Study

This is the test of intelligibility for the pilot study. (The subjects were asked to pronounce loudly the words and their speeches were recorded then the speeches were evaluated using 9-point Likert scale by two expert university teachers. Kashiwagi et al. (2005), Gordon et al. (2013), Khanbeiki (2015), Papachristou (2011) and Saito (2007; 2011) also used this method.

1. Tonight /t'nat/
2. Tomorrow /t'mɔr.ou/
3. Perhaps /præps/
4. Pencil /p'ɛn. s/
5. tentative /tɛn.tə.tɪv/



Appendix B

The Comprehensibility Test for Pilot Study

The listening was played on computers. The subjects were asked to listen to the listening carefully and write or tick the correct answer through the comprehension of the recording. Then the answers were marked by answer key given by the Cambridge University. Mokhtari and Chalak (2016) used this test and Beinhoff's (2014) and Kim's (2008) too used the tests which resemble the IELTS listening test to measure comprehensibility

SECTION 1 *Questions 1 – 10*
Questions 1 – 8
Complete the form below.
Write NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS AND/OR A NUMBER for each answer.

PACKHAM'S SHIPPING AGENCY – customer quotation form

Example	Answer
Country of destination:	Kenya.....

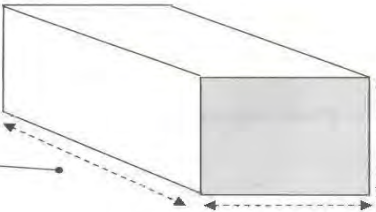
Name: Jacob 1

Address to be collected from: 2 College, Downlands Rd

Town: Bristol

Postcode: 3

Size of container:



Length: 1.5m

Width: 4

Height: 5

Contents: clothes

6

7

Total estimated value: 8 £.....

Questions 9 – 10

*Choose the correct letter, **A**, **B** or **C**.*

9 Type of insurance chosen

- A** Economy
- B** Standard
- C** Premium

10 Customer wants goods delivered to

- A** port
- B** home
- C** depot



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Appendix C

Liker Scale

Appendix C

Likert Scale of 9 points for assessing intelligibility (The recorded speeches were listened by the experts using WavPlayer to control the sounds with paddle machine. Then the experts rated the speeches according to Likert scale. The raters ticked the appropriate box according to the proficiency level of the subject to the specific item)

Extremely incorrect	1	<input type="checkbox"/>
Very incorrect	2	<input type="checkbox"/>
Moderately incorrect	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
Slightly incorrect	4	<input type="checkbox"/>
Neither incorrect nor correct	5	<input type="checkbox"/>
Slightly correct	6	<input type="checkbox"/>
Moderately correct	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Very correct	8	<input type="checkbox"/>
Extremely correct	9	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix D

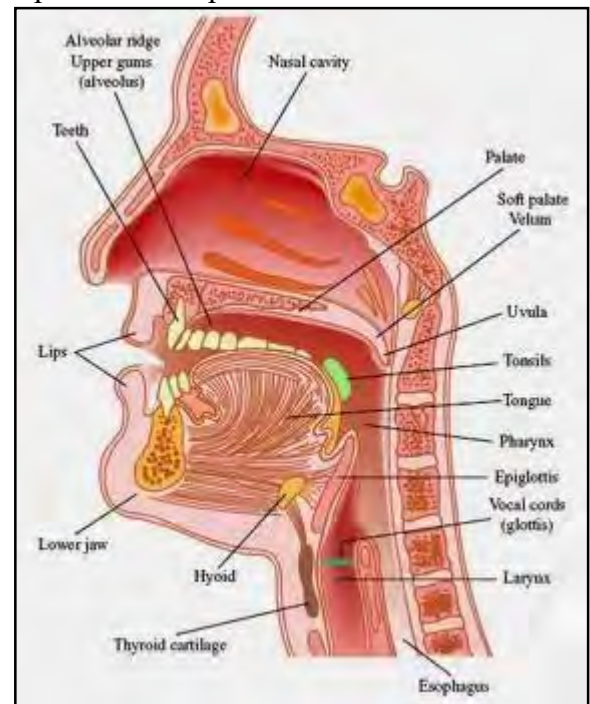
Material for Explicit Instruction

Instructions Regarding Production of Speech

The aspect of speech production is related to physiology of speech. Thus, understanding of speech production needs to start the investigation from the anatomy of speech organs because it is very important (Leiberman & Blumstein, 1988) to get knowledge about all the speech organs around the vocal tract because one cannot predict what kind of structures might be relevant investigating different speech aspects. The names of speech organs should be memorize for the clear functions of every organ. It is natural phenomenon that the speech organs' primary functions (respiratory and digestive functions) is different from speech production. However, to understand these organs speech and their functions, it is necessary to study three systems which contribute in speech productions, i.e., (Sethi & Dhamija, 2006) articulatory system, phonatory system and respiratory system.

In articulatory system, approximately 16 organs are responsible for speech production.

- 1) Upper lip
- 2) Lower lip
- 3) Upper teeth
- 4) Lower teeth
- 5) Alveolar ridge (tooth ridge)
- 6) Hard palate



- 7) Soft palate (Velum)
- 8) Palate
- 9) Tongue tip
- 10) Tongue front
- 11) Tongue middle
- 12) Tongue back
- 13) Pharynx
- 14) Nasal cavity
- 15) Uvula
- 16) Epiglottis (Nasr, 1997)

Phonatory system includes main three organs as-

- 1) Larynx
- 2) Vocal fold (vocal cords)
- 3) Trachea

While respiratory system, which participate in speech production, comprises of the following organs:

- 1) Lungs
- 2) Alveoli
- 3) Bronchi
- 4) Diaphragm

The stated above three systems participate in speech production. The respiratory system is the source of energy and phonatory system is sound source while articulatory system is a source of resonance (Nakagawa, Shikano & Tohkura, 1996). All these information

about the anatomy of speech organs help the English learners of pronunciation in understanding the different sound places regarding various aspects. The description of all these speech organs is integrated part of explicit instructions and it also helps students in using metacognitive approach in theory and application.

Instruction Regarding Description of speech

In speech description it will be investigated what are the sounds of what kinds and of what categories. These sounds are categorized according to their ways of being spoken and according the places from where they emerge.

i. Vowels

According to Kelly (2000) there are 20 vowels categorized as monophthongs and diphthongs.

Monophthongs: /ɪ/, /i/, /ʊ/, /u/, /e/, /ə/, /ɜ/, /ɔ/, /æ/, /ʌ/, /ɑ/, /ɒ/

Diphthongs: /əɪ/, /ʊə/, /eə/, /eɪ/, /ɪə/, /aɪ/, /əʊ/, /aʊ/

ii. Consonants

Consonants are 24 which are divided according to aspects or manners and places of articulation, for example, they can be categorized (Davenport & Hannahs, 2005) when one looks at them according to manners or aspects:

a. Obstruent

Stops/Plosives: /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/

Fricatives: /f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /h/

Affricates: /tʃ/, /dʒ/

b. Sonorant

Nasal: /m/, /n/, /ŋ/

Liquids: /l/, /r/

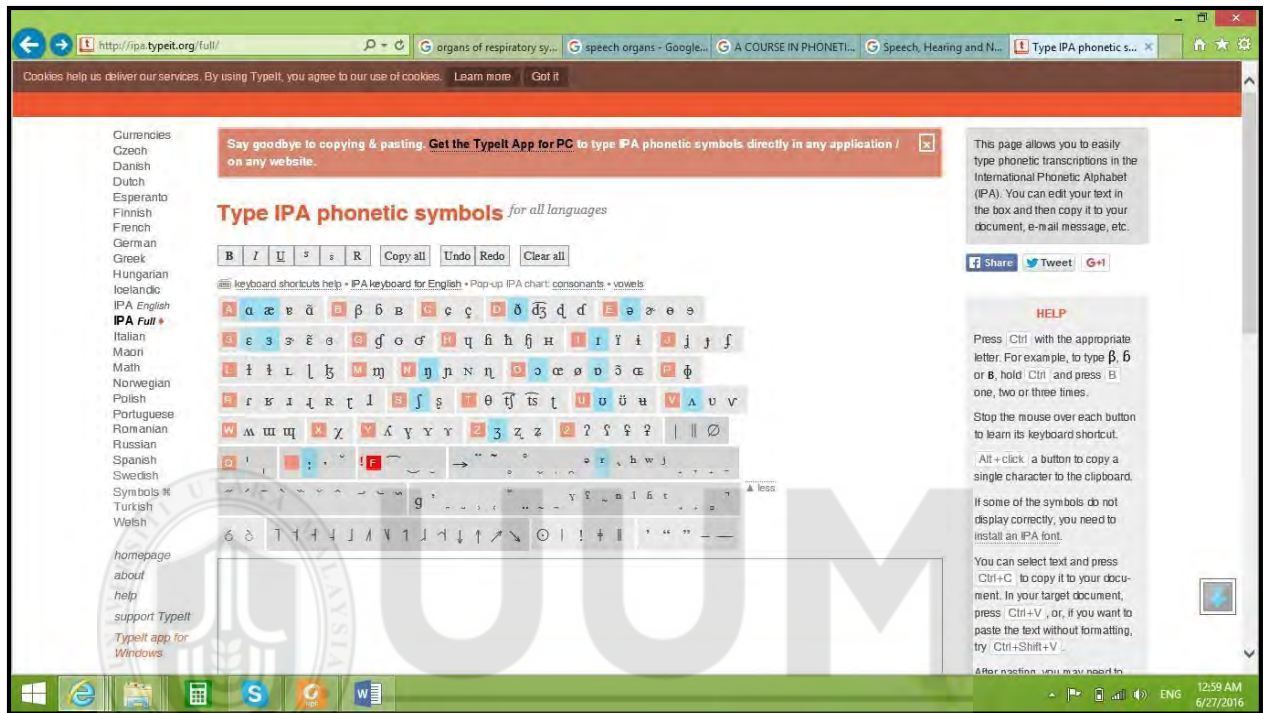
Glides: /j/, /w/

The details of consonants with examples can be seen in the section above. Phonetic is scientific study of sound which is a distinctive study course for learners of English pronunciation. The letters of English language are 26 while sounds that represent these letters, are 44. because there great difference between the spelling of words and their pronunciation (Konar, 2011). For example, (Paterno, 2006) letter “a” represent five sound in different contexts as /æ/ in cat /e/ in hate /a/ in arm /ε/ in any /εə/ in bear. So, the study for these sounds is the key to reach the goal of correct pronunciation.

Instruction Regarding International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)

IPA has been compiled by the collaboration of outstanding phoneticians integrating materials of copious members of International Phonetic Association. IPA provides a (International Phonetic Association, 2007) comprehensive agreed sounds system as well as symbols of sounds of many languages with dozens of illustrations. The study of IPA is an essential component of teaching pronunciation. The English pronunciation learners must be adept in using IPA key board. They should learn transcription using specific

symbols to each sound. The usage of IPA key will automated the pronunciation learning with the promotion of metalinguistic approach.



Screen shot of IPA key board

Phonological Instruction

No doubt that the errors in words pronunciation lead to errors in connected speech. But the pronunciation of words also change in connected speech. Words produced in isolation (called citation forms) have different pronunciation from the pronunciation in connected speech due to stress and intonation variances which are (Cruttenden, 2013 and Low, 2014) affected by their neighboring sounds. The same is the case of the sounds of segments which adopt different nature of sounds from the sounds when they are pronounced in isolation such as in words some segments are elided, some take the sound

of neighboring segments. Therefore, learners should be aware of the suprasegmental components such as stress, intonation, rhythm and pitch so that he can convey and understand the message through communication. Let us start from the instruction of phonemes and allophones.

Instruction Regarding Phoneme and Allophones

The researcher's concern here is not to define what is phoneme and allophone but the phonemic rules are to be discussed for the explicit instructional purpose. As it is stated above that phoneme is abstract representation of meaning in the mind of speaker while phone is the actual physical representation of the phoneme. The issue that must be discussed here is the rules for allophones which occur differently in different contexts. A phoneme has many its representations in the shape of allophones. Actually when a phoneme has changes in pronunciation due to different contexts these distributed changes are called allophones. These distributions are sometimes overlapping (Yavas, 2011) and sometime complementary.

- a. In overlapping distribution two different phonemes occurs in the same contexts as in “root and boot” because both phones represent different meaning so, the interchanging of phonemes will change meaning of words. Surely, English learner must be aware of such kind rhyming words which seem to be similar but they are not similar and he must avoid of such blunder mistakes of exchanging different phonemes.
- b. It is also mentionable (Laurel J. Brinton, 2000) according to phonemic rule that the symbol between slashes such as /p/ symbolizes phoneme and the symbol put in brackets as in [p^h] implies allophone.

- c. In complementary distribution the case is vice versa that the contexts are different and phonemes are the same but different allophones such as /t/ occurs in different two context “top” and “think”. Here /t/ has complementary distribution of phones [t^h] and [θ]. The interchange of this kind of distribution cannot change the meaning of words. However, the interchange seems odd and absurd which may frustrate the listener.
- d. The sound /t/ is aspirated in word-initial as in “take” [t^hek] (Zsiga, 2013) and it is glottalized in word-final as in “cat” [kæt̚].
- e. The sound /l/ is light in word-initial as in “life” L[laf] but dark in word-final as in “sail” [se̞̰].
- f. What happens to the sounds /t and l/ in word-medial? Are the sound /t/ aspirated and the sound /l/ would be light? For example, in “attack” and “fallow” No, but /t/ would be glottalized and /l/ would be dark. How it happens? It happens due to syllable division because the both words are two syllables, so, /t and l/ sounds happen on coda like word-final.
- g. According phonological rule the sound /p/ its voiceless stops or glottalized family: /t and k/ are aspirated (Denham & Lobeck, 2013) when it comes in word-initial of the stressed syllables but it is unaspirated plosive in other positions, for instance, “pot” [p^hɑ:t] and “top”[tɑ:p].

Instruction Regarding syllable

- a. Syllable is a unit of organized sound around more sonorant sound (that is called peak consists on vowel sound).

- b. A word having more than one syllable has strong syllable and weak syllables. Strong syllable is long syllable (Rouch, 1998) due to its strong peak or nucleus while weak syllable is short syllable because it consists weak nucleus.
- c. The least sonorant is vowel schwa /ə/ which is commonly linked to weak syllable. It is produced through least open vocal tract at the mid of front and back vocal tract. Rouch (1998) presents some particular positions where it happens making its syllable weak.
- I. The syllable spelt with “a” /ə/ is weaker while strong form would have /æ/ as in “ahead” [əhed] “barracks” [bær.ək]
 - II. The syllable spelt “ar” /ər/ is weaker comparing to /ɑ:/ as in “parade” [pərəɪd] and “manoch” [mɑ.nək]
 - III. The syllable spelt with “ate” /ət/ is weaker, for example, “chocolate” [tʃɒk.lət], “intimate” [n.t.ət], “inadequate” [næd.l.kwət] and “passionate” [pæ.n.ət].
 - IV. The syllable spelt with “o” is weaker as in “tonight” [tənat] “tomorrow” [təmr.ɒv] and “tobacco” [təbæk.ɒv].
 - V. The syllable spelt with “or” is weaker as in “opportunity” [ɑ.pətun] and “color” [kɒl.ə].
 - VI. The syllables spelt with “er” are weaker such as “commoner” [kɑ.mən.ə] and “gangster” [gæŋ.stə].
 - VII. The syllables which are spelt with “e” are weaker as in “women” [dev.l.mənt] and “foremen” [fɔ.mən].

- VIII. The syllables spelt with “u” are weaker like “supporter” [səpɹ.tə] and “but” [bət].
- IX. The syllables spelt with “ous” as in “generous” [dʒen.rəs] and “suspicious” [sə.ʃpɪ.əs].
- d. Other sonorant that are associated with weak syllables are close front such as /i/ and / whose examples are:
- I. When they happen in word-final as in “happy” [ˈhæp.i] and “valley” [ˈvæl.i].
 - II. When they happen in morpheme-final of “ing”, “st” and “er” as suffixes such as “worrying” [ˈwɹɪ.i.ŋ], “driest” [draɪst] and “busy” [ˈbɪ.zɪ]
 - III. When they occur in prefixes: “re”, “pre” and “de” they are weaker if they are followed by a vowel as in “reassess” [ri.əsəs], “preoccupy” [ˌpriːkjupa] and “deactivate” [di.æk.ti.veɪt].
 - IV. The article “the” [ði] as in “the onion” [ði ˈɒn.jən] when it precedes a vowel on the onset of its next word and the words “he”, [hi] “she”, [i] “we”, [wi:] “me” [mi] and “be” [bi:] when they are unstressed.
- e. The syllable which have back close vowel: “u: and ʊ” are very rare in English (Rough, 1998) only some example can be taken such as “to, do, you, into” when do not precede consonant and are not stressed but “though and who” are weak in all positions.
- f. Mostly weak syllables possess a vowel but there are also weak syllables which have consonants instead of vowels. These syllables consist of “l” or nasal sound

and “l” is indicated with syllable symbol [l], for example, “settle” [set.l], and “rumble” [ˈrʌm.bl].

- g. Generally weak syllables with “n” are composed of plosives or fricatives plus “en” uncommonly in word-initial but commonly of in word-medial and word-final as in “tonnage” [tʌn.dʒ], “threaten” [θret.n], “threatening” [θret.n.ɪŋ], “happen” [hæp.n] and “happening” [hæp.n.ɪŋ].

Instruction Regarding Word Stress

The definition of stress has been already described in the last section. A in a syllable there is a peak point that is prominent component of syllable and that is responsible for construction of syllable likewise in a word there are many syllables and among them one syllable dominates others in long duration of articulation. The important question is which syllable would be stressed and which syllables would be unstressed. There should be some rules to answer this question but it is too complex. Kelly (2001) points out that are rules for word stress are only tendencies not exact rules but rules of thumb. However, we may call them rules to facilitate English learner for practical applications with the numerous possible exceptions.

- a Nouns and adjectives having two syllables are stressed on the first syllable as in “sister” [ˈsɪ.s.tə], and “actor” [ˈæ.k.tə].
- b Frequently prefixes: “re”, “in”, “dis”, “ex”, “un”, etc, are unstressed and the second or third syllables are stressed such as “reassess” [rɪ.əˈses] and “disturb”

[dʌstəb] but with (Kelly, 2001) exception of “bicycle and dislocate” [ˈba.s.kl] and [ds.lə.ket].

Suffixes: “ly”, “al”, “ive”, “ent”, “ant”, “ic”, “ium”, etc, are unstressed (Kenworthy, 1988) and stress may occur in first syllable of the three syllable words and in four or five syllable words the stress may be on in middle or elsewhere but not on the last and first syllables such as and “actually” [æk.tʃu.ə.li], “administrative” [ədˈmɪn.ɪ.strə.tv] and “administratively” [ədˈmɪn.ɪ.strə.tv.li].

Some certain suffixes (Kenworthy, 1988) cause their preceding syllables stressed such as:

-ive regressive [ˈrɪɡres.ɪv]

-ient impatient [ɪmˈpeɪ.ənt]

-iant deviant [ˈdiː.vi.ənt]

-ial potential [pəˈten.ʃəl]

-ion invention [ɪnˈven.ʃən]

-ic symbolic [sɪmˈbɒl.ɪk] or [ˈbɑːlɪk]

-ian Australian [ɒsˈtreɪ.li.ən] or [ɑːˈstreɪl.jən]

-ious Gracious [ˈɡreɪ.əs]

-ical mechanical [məˈkæn.ɪ.kəl]

-ity utility [juˈtɪl.ɪ.ti] or [-ə.ti] or acceptability [æksep.təbɪl.ɪ.ti] or [ə.ti]

-iate differentiate [ˌdɪf.ə'ren.ʃi.ət]

-iary auxiliary [ə'gʒl.i.ə'ri] or [ə'gʒl.i.ər-]

-iable appreciable [əpri.ə.bl]

-ish vanish [ˈvæn.ɪʃ]

-ify specify [ˈspes.i.fai]

-iar familiar [fə'mɪl.i.ə'ri] or [-jə]

-ible incredible [ɪnkred.ə.bl]

‡ The words having suffix “able” do not change order of stress. The syllable which was stressed before suffixing “able” remains intact, for example, “accept” [ək'sept] “acceptable” [əksept.ə.bl], etc.,

{ Compound words made of two nouns or noun and an adjective, or a verb and a preposition are tend to be stressed on first word such as “hotpot” [hɒt.pɒt], “sorehead” [ˈsɔ:r.hed], “put-on” [ˈpʊt.ɒn] or [-ɑ:n] and “grandmother” [ˈgræn.mʌð.ə'ri] [ˈgræm-] or [-ə].

‡ The words which occurs as nouns as well as verbs would have two positions: as nouns the first syllable is stressed and as verb the last syllable is stressed as in “record” [ˈrek.ərd] as noun and “record” [re.kərd] as a verb.

Instruction Regarding Liaison (Linking)

- a. One shape of liaison or linking is that the unpronounced sound is pronounced when a consonant phoneme is preceded and followed by vowels as in “far away” [fʌrəweɪ] and “her ear” [hər r].
- b. Furthermore, in rhotic accent (r) sound appears when it is preceded by vowels such as “car” [kɑːr] and “bar” [bɑːr].
- c. Another form to liaison is done by insertion of new sound (r) which is not present in the content but in speaking intrusive (r) sound is inserted as in mediaevent, visaapplication, shahof Persia and sepicially in single word drawing [midɪə vent], [vɪzəˈeplɪkən], [ˈiːv pɪʃ] and [drɔːŋ].
- d. If phoneme (i) or (ɪ), whether it is (Kelly, 2001) part of diphthongs, occur in word-final and follows a vowel a new sound (j) is produced, for instance, “I am” [aɪəəm] and “reassure” [rɪəʃʊər].
- e. Beside intrusive (r and j) some sound can inserted such as in “zoology” [zuːl.ə.dʒi], “go in” [gəʊwɪn] and “go on” [gəʊwɒn]

Instruction Regarding Elision

In elision, sound may be deleted due to requisites of fluency, for example:

- a. The phoneme /t and d/ is deleted when they are preceded and followed by consonant sounds; “next dwelling” [ˈneks dwelɪŋ], “texts” [teks], and “served meal” [sɜːv miəl].
- b. But the sounds /t and d/ cannot be deleted when they are preceded by consonants /l and n/ as in “built muscle” [blt ˈmʌs] and “sent text” [sent tekst].

- c The schwa sound (ə) may be elided in the weak syllables such as “tonight” [tʰnaɪt] and “perhaps” [præps].
- d The sound /v/ can be deleted in “of” before (Rouch, 2005) consonant as in “way of life” the /v/ sound may be zero sound.
- e The phoneme /h/ may be deleted when speaking fluently: “it is his job” [ts ɪz dʒɑːb].

Instruction Regarding Assimilation

The details about assimilation how it occurs, is stated above. Here is given concisely some instruction. Kelly (2001) puts some rules regarding assimilation which can be summarized as under:

- a. The sounds /t, d and n/ assimilates to the consonant sounds /p, b and m/, for example:

-that boat	[ðæb boʊt]	the sound /t/ is modified to /b/
-department	[dɪpɑːrtp.mənt]	the sound /t/ is modified to /p/
-red building	[reb blɪdɪŋ]	the sound /d/ is modified to /b/
-ten males	[tem mel]	the sound /n/ is modified to /m/
- b. The sound /t/ is modified by sound /k/ when it is followed by sounds /k and g/.

-that case	[ðæk keɪs]	the sound /t/ is modified to /k/
-that guy	[ðæk gaɪ]	the sound /t/ is modified to /k/
- c. The sound /d/ adopts the sound /g/ when the sounds /k or g/ follows it.

-good guy	[gʊg gaɪ]	the sound /d/ is modified to /g/
-sad cat	[ˈsæg kæt]	the sound /d/ is modified to /g/

- d. The nasal /n/ is assimilated to sound /ŋ/ when it is followed by /g or k/.
- | | | |
|------------|------------|----------------------------------|
| -ten girls | [tɛŋgɜ:lz] | the sound /n/ is modified to /ŋ/ |
| -own cat | [oʊŋ kɑt] | the sound /n/ is modified to /ŋ/ |
- e. The sound /s/ may adopt the sound /ʃ/ if it is followed by /j/.
- | | | |
|--------------|--------------|----------------------------------|
| -this shadow | [tʰɪʃ æd.əʊ] | the sound /s/ is modified to /ʃ/ |
|--------------|--------------|----------------------------------|
- f. The sound /z/ can assimilate to sound /j/ when sound /j/ follows it
- | | | |
|--------------|-----------|----------------------------------|
| these sheep- |]ðiʃ jɪp] | the sound /z/ is modified to /j/ |
|--------------|-----------|----------------------------------|
- g. The sound /d/ may assimilate to /dʒ/ when it precedes sound /j/.
- | | | |
|------------|----------|-----------------------------------|
| -would you | [wʊdʒjʊ] | the sound /d/ is modified to /dʒ/ |
|------------|----------|-----------------------------------|



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Appendix E

Picture Description



Appendix F

The Pretest and Posttest for Comprehensibility

The listening was played on computers. The subjects were asked to listen to the listening carefully and write or tick the correct answer through the comprehension of the recording. Then the answers were marked through answer key given by the Cambridge University. Mokhtari and Chalak (2016) used this test and Beinhoff's (2014) and Kim's (2008) too used the tests which resemble the IELTS listening test to measure comprehensibility.

SECTION 1 *Questions 1 – 10*
Questions 1 – 8
Complete the form below.
Write NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS AND/OR A NUMBER for each answer.

PACKHAM'S SHIPPING AGENCY – customer quotation form

Example	Answer
Country of destination:	Kenya

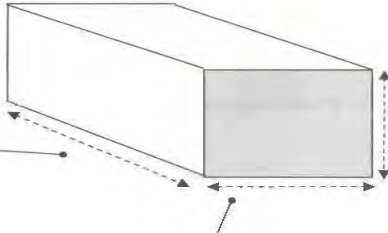
Name: **Jacob** 1

Address to be collected from: **2** College, Downlands Rd

Town: **Bristol**

Postcode: **3**

Size of container:



Length: **1.5m**

Width: **4**

Height: **5**

Contents: clothes

6

7

Total estimated value: **8** £.....

Questions 9 – 10

Choose the correct letter, A, B or C.

9 Type of insurance chosen

- A** Economy
- B** Standard
- C** Premium

10 Customer wants goods delivered to

- A** port
- B** home
- C** depot



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SECTION 2

Questions 11 – 20

Questions 11 – 20

Answer the questions below.

*Write **NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS AND/OR A NUMBER** for each answer.*

What **TWO** factors can make social contact in a foreign country difficult?

- 11
- 12

Which types of community group does the speaker give examples of?

- theatre
- 13
- 14

In which **TWO** places can information about community activities be found?

- 15
- 16

What is the speaker's second suggestion for meeting people?

- 17

What is the maximum cost of a course?

- 18

What **TWO** things could confident people give a talk about?

- 19
- 20

SECTION 3

Questions 21 – 30

Questions 21 – 26

Complete the notes below using letters A-F from the box.

NB You may use any letter more than once.

- A writing
- B note-taking
- C working with numbers
- D reading
- E videos
- F exam preparation



The Open University Good Study Guide

What Rachel found most useful in the book:

21

22

23

What Paul needs:

24

25

26

Questions 27 – 30

Complete the sentences below.

Write **NO MORE THAN TWO WORDS** for each answer.

Studying with the Open University demanded a great deal of 27

Studying and working at the same time improved Rachel's 28 skills.

It is helpful that the course was structured in 29

She enjoyed meeting other students at 30



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SECTION 4

Questions 31 – 40

Questions 31 – 40

Complete the notes below.

Write **NO MORE THAN TWO WORDS AND/OR A NUMBER** for each answer.

ANASAZI INDIANS

The name 'Anasazi' means **31** ones.

Many **32** can be seen today in Chaco Canyon.

The early Anasazi focused increasingly on how to grow and **33** crops.

Anasazi crafts included making sandals and **34**

Development of Anasazi culture

500 – 750 Introduction of:

- bow and arrow
- **35**
- pottery (two types):
 - grey **36** pots
 - black-on-white painted pots

750 – 1050 Construction changes:

- new rooms at ground level
- introduction of **37** systems
- new building materials

1050 – 1125 Road building:

- roads up to **38** wide

Decline of the Anasazi

When attacked by other Indians, the Anasazi built their homes into **39**

The Anasazi are thought to have died out because of:

- lack of food and resources
- **40**
- breakdown of society

Appendix G

The Pretest and Posttest for Intelligibility

The subjects of the study were asked to pronounce the words and their speeches were recorded. The recordings were rated manually by two expert using 9-point Likert scale.

Kashiwagi et al. (2005), Gordon et al. (2013), Khanbeiki (2015), Papachristou (2011) and Saito (2007; 2011) also used this method.

1.	Academic	/æk.ədem.k/
2.	Stapler	/ste.plə r /
3.	ahead	/əhed /
4.	suggest	/sədʒest/
5.	glance	/glɑ:ns/
6.	war	/wɜr/
7.	schedule	/ˈed.ju l/
8.	dose	/dəʊs /
9.	Asian	/ˈe.ʒə n/
10.	Wound	/wu:nd/
11.	Arch	/ ɑ:t/
12.	monsoon	/mɒn'su:n/
13.	bow	/baʊ/
14.	exist	/ɪg'zɪst/
15.	comfort	/ 'kʌm.fət/
16.	boil	/bɔl/
17.	capricious	/kəprɪ.əs/
18.	caprice	/kəprɪs/
19.	healthy	/ 'hel.θi/
20.	bourgeois	/ˈbʊʒ.wə/
21.	next dwelling	/ 'neks dwel.ɪŋ/

22.	Red building	/reb bl.dɪŋ/
23.	fast bowling	/fɑ:s 'bəʊ.lɪŋ/
24.	housing	/haʊ.zɪŋ /
25.	jersey	/'dʒɜ:.zi /
26.	avoid from the sun light	/ə'vɔɪd frɑ:m ði: sʌn laɪt/
27.	the big university	/ði bɪg ju:nɪ'vɜ:.sɪ.ti /
28.	visa application	/vɪzəæplɪkeɪʃn/
29.	that boat	/ðæt bəʊt/
30.	sister	/sɪ.s.tə/



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Appendix H

Inventory of Problematic Words for Pakistani English Speakers

These word are taken for Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary and they were selected on the bases of vowels and consonant that contains fifteen vowels /æ, e, ə, ɔ:, ʊ, ʌ, i:, ɪ, a, u, ɒ and ɜ:/ and eleven consonants /j, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, g, dʒ, tʃ, k, θ and ð/. These segments have been investigated as problematic domain through the studies of Ghulamullah and Hamzah (2017), Hashmi (2012), Sheikh (2012), Malghani and Bano (2014) Rehman et al. (2012) and Khan and Qadir (2012) to Pakistani English speakers.

pronunciation / prəˈnʌn.si.ə.ʃən / *noun* [C or U]

stapler / 'steɪ.plə / -plə / *noun* [C]

coup / ku:/ *noun* [C] (ALSO **coup d'état** , / ,ku:.der'ta:/ (PLURAL **coups d'état**))

(TAKE

monarch / 'mɒn.ək / / 'mɑ:.nək / *noun* [C]

decisive / dɪ'saɪ.sɪv / *adjective*

associate/ə'səʊ.si.ət/-'soʊ-/ *verb* [T]

assumption/ə'sʌmp.ʃən/*noun*[C](BELIEF)

lieutenant / lef'ten.ənt // lu:- / *noun* [C] **aback**

/ ə'bæk / *adverb*

abacus / 'æb.ə.kəs / *noun* [C]

abandon / ə'bæn.dən / *verb* [T] (LEAVE)

abbreviation/əˌbrɪ.vi.ə.ʃən/*noun*[C] **abdomen**

/ 'æb.də.mən / *noun* [C] SPECIALIZED

abhor / əbɔː / / æbˈhɔː / *verb* [T not continuous] (**-rr-**) FORMAL

abnormal / æbˈnɔː.məl / / -ˈnɔːr- / *adjective*

absence / ˈæb.s əns / *noun* [U or C] (**NOT BEING PRESENT**)

absurd / əbˈsɜːd / / -ˈsɜːd / *adjective*

academic / ˌæk.əˈdem.ɪk / *adjective* (**STUDYING**)

African / ˈæf.rɪ.kən / *adjective*

agency / ˈeɪ.dʒ ən.si / *noun* (**ORGANIZATION**) **ago**

/ əˈɡəʊ / / -ˈɡəʊ / *adverb*

agree / əˈɡri / *verb* (**HAVE THE SAME**

OPINION) **Ahead** / əˈhed / *adverb* (**IN FRONT**)

alien / ˈeɪ.li.ən / *adjective*

allergy / ˈæl.ə.dʒi / / -ə- / *noun* [C]

allopathy / əˈlɒp.əθi / / əˈlɑː.pə- / *noun* [U]

bourgeois / ˈbɔːʒ.wɑː / / ˈbɜːʒ- / *adjective* DISAPPROVING **floor** / flɔː /

/ flɔː / *noun* [C usually singular] (**SURFACE**) **flower** / ˈflaʊ.ə /

/ / ˈflaʊ.ə / *noun* [C]

flour / flaʊə / / flaʊə / *noun* [U]

anxious / ˈæŋk.ʃəs / *adjective* (**WORRIED**)

apex / ˈeɪ.peks / *noun* [C] (PLURAL **apexes** , PLURAL **apices** / ˈeɪ.p.sɪz /)

apostrophe / əˈpɒs.trə.fi / / -ˈpɑː.strə- / *noun* [C]

apposite / ˈæp.ə.zɪt / / -zait / *adjective* FORMAL

apposition / ˌæp.əˈzɪ.ʃ ən / *noun* [U] SPECIALIZED

appreciate / ə'pri:ʃi.ɛt / *verb* (VALUE)

appreciation / ə'pri:ʃi.ɛʃən / *noun* [U] (VALUE)

apricot / 'eɪ.pri.kɒt / -kɑ:t / *noun* [C] (FRUIT)

April / 'eɪ.prəl / *noun* [C or U] (WRITTEN ABBREVIATION **Apr.**)

Arabic / 'ær.ə.bɪk / / 'er- / *noun* [U]

arch / ɑ:tʃ / / ɑ:tʃ / *noun* [C]

archaeologist (MAINLY US **archeologist**) / ɑ:kiːnɒlə.dʒɪst / / ɑ:kiːnɒlə- / *noun*

aristocrat / 'ær.i.stə.kræt / / 'er- / *noun* [C]

arithmetic / ərθ.mə.tɪk / / -tɪk / *noun* [U]

arrogant / 'ær.ə.gənt / / 'er- / *adjective* **Asia**

/ eɪ.ʒə / *noun*

Asian / 'eɪ.ʒən / *noun* [C]

aspiration / ˌæs.pɪ'reɪʃən / / -pə'e- / *noun* (HOPE)

assignment / ə'saɪn.mənt / *noun*

assume / ə'sju:m / / -'su:m / *verb* [T] (ACCEPT)

asthma / 'æs.mə / / 'æz- / *noun* [U]

astronomy / ə'strɒn.ə.mi / / -'stra:nə- / *noun* [U]

astronomical / ˌæs.trənɒm.i.kəl / / -'nɑ:m- / *adjective* [before noun] (SCIENTIFIC)

atheist / 'eɪ.θi.ɪst / *noun* [C]

athlete / 'æθ.li:t / *noun* [C]

attaché / ə'tæʃe / *noun* [C]

attorney / ə'tʃi:ni / / -'tʃi:- / *noun* [C]

audacity / ɪ'dæs.ə.ti / / ɒ'dæs.ə.ti / *noun* [U]

auditory / ɪ.d.t̩ər.i / / ɑ.də.t̩ər.i / *adjective* SPECIALIZED

august / ɔːˈɡʌst / / ɑː- / *adjective* FORMAL

auspicious / ɔːspɪʃ.əs / / ɑ- / *adjective* FORMAL **autobiography** /

ɪ.t̩ə.baɪ.ɒɡ.rə.fi / / ɑ.t̩ə.baɪ.ə.grə- / **autocracy** / ɪt̩ɑk.rə.si / / ɑt̩ɑ- / *noun*

autocrat / ɪ.t̩ə.kræt / / ɑ.t̩ə- / *noun* [C]

automobile / ɪ.t̩ə.mə.bɪl / / ɑ.t̩ə.məʊ- / *noun* [C] US

avenge / əˈvendʒ / *verb* [T] FORMAL

avoid / əˈvɔɪd / *verb* [T]

award / əˈwɔɪd / / -wɔɪd / *verb* [T]

awe / ɔː / / ɑː / *noun* [U]

bachelor / ˈbætʃ.əl.ə / / -ə / *noun* [C]

bargain / ˈbɑːɡɪn / / ˈbɑːr- / *noun* [C] (LOW PRICE)

barley / ˈbɑːli / / ˈbɑːr- / *noun* [U]

barrage / ˈbær.ɑː / / bəˈrɑː / *noun* (ATTACK) 

behind / bɪˈhaɪnd / *preposition, adverb*

beneficent / bɪˈnef.i.s̩ənt / *adjective* FORMAL

benevolent / bɪˈnev.əl.ənt / *adjective*

beseech / bɪˈsiːtʃ / *verb* [T] (PAST TENSE AND PAST PARTICIPLE **beseeched** or **besought**)

OLD

beverage / ˈbev.ər.ɪdʒ / / -ə- / *noun* [C] FORMAL

bias / ˈbaɪ.əs / *noun* (PREFERENCE)

bicycle / baɪ.s.kl / *noun* [C]

bigamy / 'bɪg.ə.mi / *noun* [U]

binoculars / bɪ'nɒk.jʊ.ləz / / -'nɑ.kjʊ.ləz / *noun* [plural]

biography / baɪ'ɒg.rə.fi / / -'ɑ:.grə- / *noun* [C or U]

biscuit / 'bɪs.kɪt / *noun* [C] UK (US **cookie**) (**FLAT CAKE**)

blasphemy / 'blæs.fə.mi / *noun* [C or U]

boil / bɔɪl / *verb* (**HEAT LIQUID**)

border / bɔ:.də^r / / 'bɔ:r.də / *noun* [C]

(**DIVISION**) **born** / bɔ:n / / bɔ:rn / *verb*

bother / 'bɒð.ə^r / / 'bʊ.ðə / *verb* (**MAKE AN EFFORT**)

bottle / bɒt.l / / bʌ.tl / *noun* (**CONTAINER**)

bough / baʊ / *noun* [C] LITERARY

bow / baʊ / *verb* [I or T]

bowling / 'bəʊ.lɪŋ / / 'bəʊ- / *noun* [U] (**CRICKET**) **brand** / brænd / *noun* [C] (**PRODUCT**) **breakfast** / 'brek.fəst / *noun* [C or U]

breathe / bri:ð / *verb* [I or T]

(**AIR**) **brew** / bru: / *verb* (**DRINK**)

brow / braʊ / *noun* [C usually singular] LITERARY (**FACE**)

brush / brʌʃ / *noun* (**TOOL**)

buffer / 'bʌf.ə^r / / -ə / *noun* (**PROTECTION**)

buggy / 'bʌg.i / *noun* [C] UK (**BABY CHAIR**)

bugle / bju.əl / *noun* [C]

bunch / bʌntʃ / *noun* (**GROUP**)

bureau / 'bjʊə.rəʊ / / 'bjʊr.oʊ / *noun* [C] (PLURAL **bureaux** or US USUALLY **bureaus**)

(**ORGANIZATION**)

bureaucracy / bjʊə'rɒk.rə.si / / bjʊ'ra:.krə- / *noun* [U or C] MAINLY DISAPPROVING

buzz / bʌz / *verb* (**MAKE SOUND**)

bypass / 'baɪ.pɑ:s / / -pæs / *verb* [T]

calibre UK (US **caliber**) / kælɪ.bəʳ / / -bə / *noun* [U] (**QUALITY**)

cable / ke.bl / *noun* [C or U] (**WIRE**)

calcium / 'kæl.si. ə m / *noun* [U]

hydroxide / haɪ'drɒk.saɪd / / -'dra:k- / *noun* [C] SPECIALIZED

candidate / 'kæn.dɪ.dət / / -deɪt / *noun* [C]

capacitor / kə'pæs.ɪ.təʳ / / -tə / *noun* [C] SPECIALIZED

capacity / kə'pæs.ə.ti / / -ti / *noun* [C or S or U]

(**AMOUNT**) **caprice** / kə'pri:s / *noun* [C or U] LITERARY

capricious / kə'prɪʃ.əs / *adjective* LITERARY

caravan / 'kær.ə.væn / / 'ker- / *noun* [C] (**VEHICLE**)

career / kə'riəʳ / / -'rɪr / *noun* [C]

caress / kə'res / *verb* [I or T]

caricature / 'kær.ɪ.kə.tʃəʳ / / 'ker.ɪ.kə.tʃʊr / *noun* [C or U]

causality / kə'zæl.ɪ.ti / / kə'zæl.ə.ti / *noun* [U] FORMAL

cavernous / 'kæv. ə n.əs / / -ə-n- / *adjective*

cease / si:s / *verb* [I or T] FORMAL

censure / 'sen.ʃə / / -ʃə / *noun* [U] FORMAL

ceremony / 'ser.i.mə.ni / *noun* [C or U] (FORMAL **ceremonial**) (FORMAL ACTS)

certificate / sə'tɪf.i.kət / / sə- / *noun* [C]

chaos / 'keɪ.ɒs / / -ɑ:s / *noun* [U]

chariot / 'tʃær.i.ət / / 'tʃer- / *noun* [C]

chase / tʃeɪs / *verb* (FOLLOW)

housing / 'haʊ.zɪŋ / *noun* [U]

chivalry / 'ʃiv.ə.lɪ / *noun* [U]

chocolate / 'tʃɒk.lət / / 'tʃɑk- / *noun*

cholera / 'kɒl.ə.rə / / 'kɑ:.lə- / *noun* [U] **choleric**

/ kɒ'ler.ɪk / / kə'ler- / *adjective* FORMAL **cinema**

/ sin.ə.mə / *noun*

cipher / 'saɪ.fə / / -fə / *noun* [C] US (NUMBER)

collide / kə'lɑɪd / *verb* [I]

colloquial / kə'ləʊ.kwi.əl / / -'ləʊ- / *adjective* SPECIALIZED

colony / 'kɒl.ə.ni / / 'kɑ:.lə- / *noun* [C] (GROUP) **comb**

/ kəʊm / / kəʊm / *noun* [C] (FOR HAIR) **comfort**

/ 'kʌm.fət / / -fət / *noun* (NO PAIN)

commit / kə'mɪt / *verb* [T] (-tt-) (CRIME)

comfortable / kʌm.fə.tə.bl / / -fə.tə- / *adjective* (CLOTHES/FURNITURE)

compass / 'kʌm.pəs / *noun* [C] (DIRECTION DEVICE)

compassion / kəm'pæʃ.ən / *noun* [U] APPROVING

compatible / kəmpæt.ə.bl / / -pæt- / *adjective*

adhere / əd'hɪə / / -hɪr / *verb* [I] FORMAL

component / kəm'pəʊ.nənt / / -'pou- / *noun* [C]

compromise / 'kɒm.prə.maɪz / / 'kɑ:m- / *noun* [C or U]

conceit / kən'si:t / *noun* [U] (PRIDE)

conclusion / kən'klu:ʒən / *noun* (LAST PART)

conjure / 'kʌn.dʒə / / -dʒə- / *verb* [I or T]

conservative / kən'sɜ:və.tɪv / / -sɜ:və.tɪv / *adjective* (AGAINST CHANGE)

considerate / kən'sɪd.ə.rət / / -ə- / *adjective*

conspiracy / kən'spɪr.ə.si / *noun* [C or U]

constable / kʌn.stə.bl / / 'kən- / *noun* [C]

consume / kən'sju:m / / -'su:m / *verb* [T] (USE RESOURCE)

contradict / ,kɒn.trə'dɪkt / / ,kɑ:n- / *verb* [I or T]

controversy / 'kɒn.trə.vɜ:si / / kən'trɒv.ə- / / 'kɑn.trə.vɜ:- / *noun* [C or U]

conveyance / kən'veɪ. əns / *noun* (TRANSPORTATION)

convoy / 'kɒn.vɔ/ / 'kɒn- / *noun*

cooperative (UK ALSO **co-operative**) / kəʊp. ə r. ətv / / kəʊə.pə. ətv / *adjective*

Coordinate (verb) (UK ALSO **co- ordinate**) / kəʊ'ɔ:.di.net / / kəʊ'ɔ:r- / *verb* [T]

(COMBINE)

Coordinate (noun) / kəʊ'ɔ:.di.net / / kəʊ'ɔ:r- / *noun* [C usually plural] (POSITION)**cordial** /

kɑ:.di.əl / / 'kɔ:r.dʒəl / *adjective* FORMAL (FRIENDLY)

couch / kaʊtʃ / *noun* [C] (SEAT)

counterfeit / 'kaʊn.tə.fit / / -tə- / *adjective*

courageous / kə'reɪ.dʒəs / *adjective*

crew / kru:/ / *noun*

crisis / 'kraɪ.sɪs / *noun* (PLURAL **crises** / -sɪ:z /)

critique / krɪ'tɪk / *noun* [C]

crocodile / 'krɒk.ə.daɪl / / 'kra:..kə- / *noun* [C] (PLURAL **crocodiles** or **crocodile**) (

INFORMAL **croc** , /krɒk / / kra:k /)(ANIMAL)**cry**

/ kra/ *verb* [I or T] (SHOUT)

cucumber / 'kju:.kʌm.bə ʳ / / -bə / *noun* [C or U]

cumulative / kju:.mjʊ.lə.tv / / -tv / *adjective*

cure / kjʊə ʳ / / kjʊr / *verb* [T] (MAKE WELL)

curiosity / ˌkjʊə.riˈɒs.i.ti / / ˌkjʊr.i.ə.sə.ti / *noun* [U] (**INTEREST**) **custody**

/ ˈkʌs.tə.di / *noun* [U] (**CARE**)

customary / ˈkʌs.tə.m ər.i / / -mer- / *adjective*

(**USUAL**) **deal** / diəl / *noun* [C] (**AGREEMENT**)

decease / dɪˈsiːs / *noun* [U] FORMAL

deceased / dɪˈsiːst / *adjective* FORMAL

decisive / dɪˈsiː.sɪv / *adjective*

declaration / ˌdek.ləˈreɪʃ ə n / *noun* [C] (**ANNOUNCEMENT**)

declare / dɪˈkleə ʔ / / -ˈkler / *verb* (**EXPRESS**)

defer / dɪˈfɜː ʔ / / -fɜː / *verb* [T] (-rr-)

defiant / dɪˈfaɪ.ənt / *adjective*

deficiency / dɪˈfɪ.ə.n.si / *noun* [C or U] **deity**

/ ˈdeɪ.ti / / ˈdi.ə.ti / *noun* [C] **deliberate** /

dɪˈlɪb. ər.ət / / -ə- / *adjective*

democracy / dɪˈmɒk.rə.si / / -ˈmɑː.krə- / *noun*

demon / ˈdiː.mən / *noun*

denial / dɪˈnaɪ.əl / *noun* (**NOT TRUE**)

departmental / di.pa'tmen.t ə l / / -pɑrtmen.t ə l / *adjective*

deputation / ,dep.jʊ'teɪ.ʃən / *noun* [C, +sing/pl verb] **deputy** /

'dep.jʊ.ti / / -ti / *noun* [C]

epitome / |pt.ə.mi / / -pt- / *noun*

derivation / ,der.ɪ'veɪ.ʃən / *noun* [C or U]

designate / 'dez.ɪg.neɪt / *verb* [T]

despair / dɪ'speə / / -'sper / *noun* [U]

desperate / 'des.p ə r.ət / / -pə- / *adjective* (SERIOUS)

detergent / dɪ'tɜː.dʒə nt / / -'tɜː- / *noun* [CorU] **develop** /

dɪ'vel.əp / *verb* [I or T] (GROW)

deviate / 'diː.vi.eɪt / *verb* [I] (BEHAVIOUR)

diabetes / ,daɪə'biː.tɪz / / -təs / *noun* [U]

diagnosis / ,daɪ.əg'nəʊ.sɪs / / -'nəʊ- / *noun* [C or U] (PLURAL **diagnoses**)

dilemma / daɪ'lem.ə / / dɪ- / *noun* [C]

disciple / dsa.pl / *noun*

discriminate / dɪ'skrɪm.i.neɪt / *verb* [I] (TREAT DIFFERENTLY) **district**

/ 'dɪs.trɪkt / *noun* [C]

divorce / dɪ'vɔːs / / -'vɔːs / *noun* [C or U] (PEOPLE)

doctrine / 'dɒk.trɪn / / 'dɒk- / *noun* [C or U]

dogged / 'dɒɡ.ɪd / / 'dɑː.ɡɪd / *adjective*

dominate / 'dɒm.ɪ.neɪt / / 'dɑː.mə- / *verb* (HAVE) **doze** / dəʊs / / doʊs /

noun [C]

dosage / 'dəʊ.sɪdʒ / / 'dɒʊ- / *noun* [C usually singular] FORMAL **draught** UK (

US **draft**) / draːft / / dræft / *noun* [C] (COLD AIR) **drought** / draʊt /

noun [C or U]

dry / draɪ / *adjective* (**drier** , **driest**) (NOT WET)

dubious / 'djuː.bi.əs / / 'duː- / *adjective*

dungeon / 'dʌn.dʒən / *noun* [C]

dwarf / dwɔːf / / dwɔːrf / *verb* [T]

dye / daɪ / *verb* [T] (PRESENT PARTICIPLE **dyeing** , PAST TENSE AND PAST PARTICIPLE **dyed**)

earl / ɪl / / ɜːl / *noun* [C]

ecclesiastic / ˌkliː.zi.əs.ɪk / *noun* [C] FORMAL OR OLD-FASHIONED a Christian priest or

official

echo / 'ek.əʊ / / -oʊ / *noun* [C] (PLURAL **echoes**) (SOUND)

envelop / n'vɛl.əp / *verb* [T] LITERARY

envelope / 'en.və.ləʊp / / 'ɑ:n.və.ləʊp / *noun* [C]

ecological / i.kə'lɒdʒɪ.kəl / / -'lɑ:dʒ- / *adjective* **ecstasy** /

'ek.stə.si / *noun* [C or U] (**EMOTION**) **editor** /

'ed.ɪ.tə / / -tə / *noun* [C]

efficiency / i'fɪ.ə.n.si / *noun* [U]

efficient / i'fɪ.ənt / *adjective* **election**

/ i'lek.trɪk / *noun* [C or U] **electric** /

i'lek.trɪk / *adjective* (**POWER**)

eleven / i'lev.ən / *number*

eligible / el.ɪ.dʒə.bəl / *adjective*

eliminate / i'li.mi.neɪt / *verb*

embroider / m'brɔɪ.də / / -də / *verb* [I or T] (**DECORATE**) **mend** /

'mend / *verb* [T]

emergency / i'mɜː.dʒə.n.si / / -'mɜː- / *noun* [C or U]

emigrant / 'em.ɪ.grənt / *noun* [C]

emphasis / 'em.fə.sɪs / *noun* [C or U] (PLURAL **emphases**)

empirical / m'pɪ.rɪ.kəl / *adjective*

employment / m'plɔɪ.mənt / *noun* [U] (**WORK**)

enable / ˈneɪ.bəl / *verb* [T]

enchant / ɪnˈtʃɑːnt / -ˈtʃænt / *verb* [T] **(PLEASE) encircle** /

ɪnˈsɪ.kl / -sɪ- / *verb* [T]

enclose / ɪnˈklaʊz / -ˈkloʊz / *verb* [T] **(SURROUND)**

encode / ɪnˈkəʊd / -ˈkoʊd / *verb*

encompass / ɪnˈkʌm.pəs / *verb* [T] FORMAL

encourage / ɪnˈkʌr.dʒ / -ˈkɜː- / *verb* [T]

] **endanger** / ɪnˈden.dʒəˈr / -dʒə / *verb* [T]

endeavour UK (US **endeavor**) / ɛnˈdev.əˈr / -ə / *verb* [I + to infinitive]

endowment / ɪnˈdaʊ.mənt / *noun*

endure / ɪnˈdjʊəˈr / -ˈdʊr / *verb* [T]

(EXPERIENCE) enema / ˈen.ə.mə / *noun* [C]

enemy / ˈen.ə.mi / *noun*

enfold / ɪnˈfəʊld / -ˈfoʊld / *verb* [T] LITERARY

engineer / ˌen.dʒɪˈniəˈr / -ˈniːr / *noun* [C] **enlist** /

ɪnˈlɪst / *verb* [I] **(JOIN)**

enough / ɪˈnʌf / *determiner , pronoun , adverb*

enter / ˈen.təˈr / -tə / *verb* [I or T] **(PLACE)**

enterprise / ˈen.tə.praɪz / -tə- / *noun* [C or U] **(BUSINESS)**

entertain / en.tə'teɪn / -tə-/ *verb* [I or T] (**AMUSE**)

enthrone / n'θrəʊn / -θrəʊn / *verb*

enthusiasm / n'θjuː.zi.æz. ə m / -'θu- / *noun*

entrance / en.trəns / *noun*

envisage / ɪn'vɪz.ɪdʒ / *verb* [T] FORMAL (US ALSO **envision**)

epic / 'ep.ɪk / *noun* [C]

erotic / ɪrə'tɪk / -rə.tk / *adjective*

erotically / ɪrə'tɪk ə l.i / -rə.t.k ə l.i / *adverb*

escape / 'skeɪp / *verb* [I or T] (**GET FREE**)

essence / 'es. ə ns / *noun* (**IMPORTANCE**)

essential / ɪsen.'ʃl / *adjective*

establish / ɪ'stæb.lɪ / *verb* (**START**)

eternal / ɪ'tɜːnəl / -tɜː- / *adjective*

etymology / ɪtɪ'mɒl.ə.dʒi / -etɪ.mə.lə- / *noun* [C or U]

even / ɪ.v ə n / *adverb* (**SURPRISE**)

exact / ɪ'zækt / *adjective*

exaggerate / ɪ'zædʒ.ə.reɪ / -ɪ.ɪ / *verb* [I or T]

exam / ɪ'zæm / *noun* [C] (FORMAL **examination**)

example / ɪ'zɑːm.pəl / -'zæm- / *noun* [C] (**TYPICAL CASE**)

exasperate / ɪˈzɑːspə.reɪt / / -ˈzæs.pə.ɪt / *verb* [T]

exceed / ɪkˈsiːd / *verb* [T]

except / ɪkˈsept / *preposition , conjunction*

indict / ɪnˈdaɪ / *verb* [T] **LEGAL**

excess / kˈses / / ˈek.ses / *noun* (**TOO MUCH**)

exchange / ksˈtʃeɪndʒ / *noun* (**GIVING AND GETTING**)

excitement / kˈsaɪl.mənt / *noun* [C or U]

exclude / kˈsklud / *verb* [T]

excuse / kˈskjuːz / *verb* [T]

executive / ɪˈzek.ju.tɪv / / -jə.tv / *noun* [C]

exempt / ɪˈzempt / *verb* [T]

exhaust / ɪgˈzɔːst / / -ˈzɑːst / *verb* [T] (**Exhibit** /

ɪgˈzɪb.ɪt / *verb* [I or T]

exhibition / ˌek.sɪˈbɪʃ.ən / *noun* [C or U]

exhilaration / ɪgˌzɪl.əˈreɪ.ən / *noun* [U]

exile / ˈek.saɪl / / ˈeg.zaɪl / *noun* **exist** /

ɪgˈzɪst / *verb* [I] (**BE**) **exotic** / ɪˈzɒt.ɪk /

/ -ˈzɑːtɪk / *adjective*

exotically / -ˈzɒt.ɪk əˈl.i / / -ˈzɑːt.ɪk əˈl.i / *adverb* **exoticism**

/ -ˈzɒt.ɪ.sɪ.z əˈm / / -ˈzɑːt.sɪ.z əˈm / *noun* [U] **expand** /

ɪkˈspænd / *verb* [I or T]

expanse / k'spæns / *noun* [C]

expect / k'spekt / *verb* (THINK)

expectation / ˌɛk.spek'teɪʃən / *noun* [U]

expel / k'spel / *verb* [T] (-ll-) (PERSON)

expend / k'spend / *verb* [T] FORMAL **experience**

/ k'spə.ri.əns / / -spr.i- / *noun* **expire**

/ k'spaɪn / / -spaɪn / *verb* [I] (END) **explain** /

k'splen / *verb* [I or T]

explanation / ˌɛk.splə'neɪʃən / *noun* [C or U]

explanatory / k'splæn.ə'tɹi / / -tr.i / *adjective*

explicit / k'splɪt / *adjective*

explicitness / -nəs / *noun* [U]

explode / k'spləʊd / / -spləʊd / *verb* [I or T] (BREAK APART)

exploit / k'splɔɪt / *verb* [T] (USE WELL)

explore / k'splɔː / / -splɔː / *verb* [I or T]

export / k'spɔːt / / ˌɛk.spɔːt / *verb*

expose / k'spəʊz / / -spəʊz / *verb* [T] (UNCOVER)

exposition / ˌɛk.spə'zɪʃən / *noun* [C or U] FORMAL (EXPLANATION)

exposure / k'spəʊʒə / / -spəʊʒə / *noun* [C or U] (EXPERIENCE)

express / k'spres / *verb* [T] (SHOW)

extend / k'stend / *verb* (**INCREASE**)

extent / k'stent / *noun* [S or U]

external / ɪk'stɜː.nəl / -'stɜː- / *adjective*

extinct / k'stɪŋkt / *adjective*

extract / k'strækt / *verb* [T]

extract / 'ek.strækt / *noun* [C or U] (**PLANT**) extraordinary

/ k'strɔːdɪn.ər.i / / -'strɔːdɪn.ər- / *adjective*

extravagant / k'stræv.ə.ɡənt / *adjective*

extreme / ɪk'strim / *adjective* (**GREAT**)

exult / ɡ'zʌlt / *verb* [I] FORMAL

façade (ALSO **facade**) / fə'sɑːd / *noun* [C] (**BUILDING**)

facilitate / fə'sɪl.ɪ.teɪt / *verb* [T] FORMAL

factitious / fæk'tɪf.əs / *adjective* FORMAL

faculty / 'fæk.əl.ti / -ti / *noun* (**ABILITY**)

fallacy / 'fæl.ə.si / *noun* [C] FORMAL

fashionable / 'fæʃ.ən.ə.bl / *adjective*

fasten / 'fɑːsən / / 'fæs.ən / *verb*

feminine / 'fem.i.nɪn / *adjective* (**FEMALE**)

fiend / fiːnd / *noun* [C]

fierce / fɪəs / / fɪrs / *adjective*

filthy / 'fɪl.θi / *adjective* (**DIRTY**)

finite / 'faɪ.naɪt / *adjective* (**LIMITED**)

flour / flaʊə^r / / flaʊə / *noun* [U]

flower / 'flaʊ.ə^r / / 'flaʊ.ə / *noun* [C]

foliage / 'fəʊ.li.ɪdʒ / / 'foʊ- / *noun* [U]

forbear / fɔ'beə^r / / fɔ'ber / *verb* [I] (**forbore** , **forborne**) FORMAL

forbid / fə'bɪd / / fə- / *verb* [T] (PRESENT PARTICIPLE **forbidding** , PAST TENSE

forbade or

forfeit / 'fɔ:ft / / 'fɔr- / *verb* [T]

forgave / fə'geɪv / / fə- /

forget / fə'get / / fə- / *verb* (PRESENT PARTICIPLE **forgetting** , PAST TENSE **forgot** , PAST PARTICIPLE **forgotten**) (**NOT REMEMBER**)

forgive / fə'gɪv / / fə- / *verb* [I or T , not continuous] (**forgave** , **forgiven**)

format / 'fɔ:mæt / / fɔr- / *noun* [C or U]

formative / 'fɔ:mə.tɪv / / fɔr.mə.tɪv / *adjective* FORMAL

former / 'fɔ:mə^r / / fɔr.mə / *adjective* [before noun]

formula / 'fɔ:mjʊ.lə / / 'fɔr- / *noun* [C] (PLURAL **formulas** or **formulae**)

forsake / fɔ:'seɪk / / fɔ:r- / *verb* [T] (**forsook** , **forsaken**) LITERARY (**LEAVE**)

fortunate / 'fɔ:tfə.nət / / 'fɔr- / *adjective* APPROVING

fortune / 'fɔː.tʃuːn / / 'fɔːr- / *noun* [C] (**WEALTH**)

forward / 'fɔː.wəd / / 'fɔːr.wəd / *adverb* (ALSO **forwards**) (**PROGRESS**) **fossil** / 'fɒs.

əl / / 'fɒ.s əl / *noun* [C] (**IN ROCK**)

fragile / 'frædʒ.aɪl / / 'frædʒ. əl / *adjective*

fricative / 'frɪk.ə.tɪv / / -tɪv / *noun* [C] **PHONETICS**

frugal / 'fruː.g əl / *adjective*

fry / fra/ *verb* [I or T]

garage / 'gær.ɑːʒ / / -ɪdʒ / / gə'raːʒ / *noun* (**CARS**)

garrison / 'gær.ɪ.s ən / / 'ger- / *noun* [C , + sing/pl verb]

geese / ɡiːs / *PLURAL OF goose noun* (**BIRD**)

goose / ɡuːs / *noun* [C or U] (*PLURAL geese*) (**BIRD**)

generic / dʒə'ner.ɪk / *adjective*

generosity / dʒen.ə'res.i.ti / / -rə.sə.ti / *noun* [U] **genre**

/ ʒə.rə / / ʒən- / *noun* [C] **FORMAL geography**

dʒi'ɒɡ.rə.fi / / dʒi'ɑː.grə- / *noun* [U]

giant / 'dʒaɪ. ənt / *noun* [C] (**VERY TALL PERSON**)

gigantic / dʒaɪ'ɡæntɪk / / -tɪk / *adjective*

glance / ɡlɑːns / / ɡlæns / *verb* [I usually + adv/prep] (**LOOK**)

gnome / nəʊm / / noʊm / *noun* [C]

gigantic / ˌdʒaɪˈɡæntɪk / -tɪk / *adjective*

goggle / ˈɡɒɡ.əl / / ˈɡɑː.ɡəl / *verb* [I] INFORMAL

gogga / ˈxɒ.xə / / ˈxɑː- / *noun* [C] SOUTH AFRICAN ENGLISH

golf / ɡɒlf / / ɡɑːlf / *noun* [U]

gorilla / ɡəˈrɪl.ə / *noun* [C]

govern / ˈɡʌv. ə n / -ən / *verb* [I or T] (RULE)

government / ˈɡʌv. ə n.mənt / - ə m- / -ən- / *noun* [C , + sing/pl verb] (WRITTEN

granite / ˈgræn.ɪt / *noun* [U]

guy / ɡaɪ / *noun* (MAN)

handkerchief / ˈhæŋ.kə.tʃɪːf / -kə- / *noun* [C] (PLURAL **handkerchiefs** or UK ALSO

handkerchieves) (INFORMAL **hanky**)

hazardous / ˈhæz.ə.dəs / -ə- / *adjective*

heal / hiːl / *verb* [I or T]

healthy / ˈhel.θi / *adjective* (HEALTH)

wealthy / ˈwel.θi / *adjective*

heaven / ˈhev. ə n / *noun*

Hebrew / ˈhiːbruː / *noun*

heel / hiːl / *noun* [C] (BODY PART)

hegemony / hɪ'gɛm.ə.ni / / -'dʒem- / / -'dʒem- / / 'hedʒ.ə.mou- / *noun* [U] FORMAL

heir / eə^r / / er / *noun*

hereditary / hə'red.i.t^ər.i / *adjective* **hierarchy** /

'haɪə.ra:ki / / 'haɪr.ɑ:r- / *noun* [C] **high** / haɪ /

adjective **(DISTANCE)**

homogenous / ,hɒm.ə'dʒi:.ni.əs / / ,həʊ.mə- / / ,hou.mou'dʒi:- / *adjective*

horizon / hə'raɪ.z^ən / *noun* [S]

horizontal / ,hɒr.zən.t^əl / / ,hɒr.zən.t^əl / *adjective*

horrible / 'hɒr.əbl / / 'hɒr- / *adjective*

horror / 'hɒr.ə^r / / 'hɒr.ə / *noun* **horse** /

hɔ:s / / hɔ:rs / *noun* **(ANIMAL)**

hosiery / 'həʊz.jə.ri / / 'houz.ʒ.i / *noun* [U] (ALSO **hose**) FORMAL

hotel / həʊ'tel / / hou- / *noun* [C] **(PLACE TO STAY)** **hypocrisy**

hɪ'pɒk.rɪ.si / / -'pɑ:.krə- / *noun* [U] DISAPPROVING

hypocrite / 'hɪp.ə.krɪt / *noun* [C] DISAPPROVING

hypocritical / ,hɪp.ə'krɪ.tɪ.k^əl / / -əkrɪt- / *adjective* DISAPPROVING

ideological / ,aɪ.di.ə'lədʒ.i.k^əl / / -'la:..dʒɪ- / *adjective*

ideology / ,aɪ.di'ɒl.ə.dʒi / / -'a:..lə- / *noun* [C or U]

illegality / ɪ.lɪ'ɡæl.ɪ.ti / / -ə.ti / *noun* [C or U]

illegible / ɪledʒ.ə.bl / *adjective*

illegitimate / ɪ.lɪ'dʒɪ.tə.mət / / -dʒɪ- / *adjective*

illiterate / ɪlɪ.'r.ət / / -lɪ.tə- / *adjective*

immediate / ɪ.mi.di.ət / *adjective* **impugn** /

m'pjʊn / *verb* [T] FORMAL

inappropriate / ɪ.n.ə'prəʊ.pri.ət / / -'prəʊ- / *adjective*

inaugurate / ɪn.ə'ɡjʊ.reɪt / / -'ne- / *verb* [T] **incestuous** /

n'ses.tʃu.əs / *adjective*

inclination / ɪn.klɪ'nei.ʃən / *noun* [C or U] (FEELING)

incline / ɪn'klaɪn / *verb* [I or T , usually + adv/prep] FORMAL (FEEL)

increase / ɪn'kriːs / *verb* [I or T]

indict / ɪn'daɪt / *verb* [T] LEGAL

indigenous / ɪn'dɪʒ.ɪ.nəs / *adjective*

infant / ɪn.fənt / *noun* [C] (YOUNG CHILD)

information / ɪn.fə'meɪ.ʃən / / -fə- / *noun* [U] (INFORMAL **info**)

ingredient / ɪn'ɡri.di.ənt / *noun* [C]

inorganic / ɪn.ɔ:'ɡæ.n.ɪk / / -ɔ:r- / *adjective* SPECIALIZED

installation / ˌn.stəˈleɪʃən / *noun* [C] (**PLACE**)

instrument / ˈɪn.strə.mənt / *noun* [C] (ALSO **musical instrument**)

(**MUSIC**) **insulin** / ˈɪn.sjʊ.lɪn / -sə- / *noun* [U]

interfere / ˌɪn.təˈfɪə / -təfr / *verb* [I]

interim / ˈɪn.t̪̩.ɹɪm / -tə- / *adjective* [before noun]

interpretation / ˌɪn.t̪̩.prɪˈteɪʃən / -t̪̩.prte- / *noun* [C or U] (**WAY
PERFORMING**)

interrogative / ˌɪn.t̪̩.rɒg.ə.tɪv / -t̪̩.rʌ.gə.tɪv / *noun* SPECIALIZED

intestine / ˈɪn.tes.tɪn / *noun* [C usually plural]

intimate / ˈɪn.tɪ.mət / -tə- / *adjective*

(**PERSONAL**) **intricate** / ˈɪn.tɪ.kət / *adjective*

intrinsic / ɪnˈtrɪn.zɪk / *adjective*

invitation / ˌɪn.vɪˈteɪʃən / *noun* (**ASK TO AN** **invite** / ɪnˈvaɪt / *verb* [T] (**ASK TO AN EVENT**)

invoice / ˈɪn.vɔɪs / *noun* [C]

inward / ˈɪn.wəd / -wəd / *adjective* (**INSIDE**)

isle / aɪl / *noun* [C] LITERARY

January / ˈdʒæn.jʊ.ɹi / -juː.ər.i / *noun* [C or U] (WRITTEN ABBREVIATION **Jan.**)

jasmine / 'dʒæz.mɪn / *noun* [C or U]

jeopardy / 'dʒep.ə.di / / -ə- / *noun*

jersey / 'dʒɜː.zi / / 'dʒɜː- / *noun* (CLOTHING) **jewellery** UK (US

jewelry) / 'dʒu. ə l.rɪ / *noun* [U] **join** / dʒɔɪn *verb*

(CONNECT)

judo / 'dʒuː.dəʊ / / -doʊ / *noun* [U]

July / dʒʊˈlaɪ / *noun* [C or U] (WRITTEN ABBREVIATION **Jul.**)

keep / kiːp / *verb* (**kept** , **kept**) (CONTINUE TO HAVE)

key / ki / *noun* [C] (**LOCK**)

kinetic / kiˈnetɪk / / -net- / *adjective* [before noun] SPECIALIZED

laboratory / ləˈbɒr.ə.t̬əˈrɪ / / 'læb.rə.tɔːr.i / *noun* [C] (INFORMAL **lab**)

lament / ləˈment / *verb* [I or T]

laureate / 'lɒr.i.ət / / 'lɑː- / *noun* [C]

layman / 'leɪ.mən / *noun* [C] (PLURAL **-men** / -mən /) (ALSO **layperson**) (**CHURCH**)

lease / liːs / *verb* [T]

legacy / 'leg.ə.si / *noun* [C]

liaison / li'eɪ.zən / / -zɑːn / *noun* (**LINK BETWEEN**) **liberty**

/ ˈlɪb.ə.ti / / -t̬i / *noun* (**FREEDOM**)

lieutenant / lef'ten. ənt / / lu:- / *noun* [C]

lineage / 'lɪ.ni.ɪdʒ / *noun* [C or U] FORMAL

locative / 'lək.ə.tɪv / / lə.kə.tv / *noun* [C or U] SPECIALIZED

loose / lu:s / *adjective* (NOT FIXED)

lose / lu:z / *verb* (**lost** , **lost**) (NOT HAVE)

lunatic / 'lu.nə.tɪk / / -tɪk / *noun* [C]

luxury / 'lʌkʃ'ə.rɪ / / -ʃə- / *noun*

manacle / 'mæn.ə.kl / *verb* [T]

mandatory / 'mæn.də.t'ə.rɪ / / -tɔ:rɪ / *adjective* FORMAL

manipulate / mə'nɪp.jʊ.leɪt / *verb* [T] MAINLY DISAPPROVING (INFLUENCE)

manoeuvre UK (US **maneuver**) / mə'nu:.və' / / -və / *noun* [C] (MOVEMENT)

market / 'mɑ:kit / / 'mɑ:r- / *noun* [C] (BUYING AND SELLING)

mathematics / 'mæθ'mæt.ɪks / / -'mæt- / *noun* [U] (UK INFORMAL **maths** , US INFORMAL **math**) FORMAL

matriculate / mə'trɪk.jʊ.leɪt / *verb* [I] FORMAL

matrix / 'meɪ.trɪks / *noun* [C] (PLURAL **matrices** or **matrixes**) FORMAL
(DEVELOPMENT)

matron / 'meɪ.trən / *noun* [C] UK OLD-FASHIONED (SCHOOL)

mature / mə'tjʊə' / / -'tʊr / *adjective* (LIKE AN ADULT)

meadow / 'med.əʊ / / -oʊ / *noun* [C or U]

meal / miəl / *noun* [C] (**FOOD**)

melody / 'mel.ə.di / *noun* [C or U]

memorable / 'mem. ə r.ə.bl / *adjective*

mercenary / 'mɜː.s ə n.ri / / 'mɜː- / *adjective* DISAPPROVING

mercury / mɜː.kjʊ.ri / / 'mɜː- / *noun* [U] (OLD USE **quicksilver**)

metaphor / 'met.ə.fɪr / / met.ə.fɪr / *noun* [C or U]

methodical / mə'thɒd.i.k ə l / / -'θɑː.dɪ- / *adjective* **minaret** /

,mɪn.ə'ret / *noun* [C]

minister / 'mɪn.ɪ.stə / / -stə / *noun* [C] (**POLITICIAN**)

miracle / mɪr.l.kl / *noun* [C]

miscellaneous / ,mɪs. ə l'eɪ.ni.əs / *adjective*

mischief / 'mɪs.tʃɪf / *noun*

Mischievous / 'mɪs.tʃɪ.vəs / *adjective*

miser / 'maɪ.zə / / -zə / *noun* [C] DISAPPROVING

miserable / 'mɪz. ə r.ə.bl / / -ə- / *adjective* (**UNHAPPY**) **modern**

/ 'mɒd. ə n / / 'mɑː.dən / *adjective* (**MOST** **modify** / 'mɒd.ɪfa/

/ 'mɑː.dɪ- / *verb* [T] (**CHANGE**)

module / 'mɒd.juːl / / 'mɑː.dʒuːl / *noun* [C]

monarchy / 'mɒn.ə.kɪ / / 'mɑː.nə- / *noun*

monopolize (UK USUALLY **monopolise**) / mə' nɒp. ə l.aɪz / / -' nɑː.pə.laɪz / *verb* [T]

monosyllable / mɒn.əsɪ.l.ə.bl / / ' mɑː.nʊ- / *noun* [C] SPECIALIZED

monotony / mə'mt. ə n.i / / -nɑ.t ə n- / *noun* [U] (ALSO **monotonousness**)

monsoon / mɒn' suːn / / mɑːn- / *noun* [C]

mortgage / ' mɔː.gɪdʒ / / ' mɔːr- / *noun* [C]

mosaic / məʊ' zɛːk / / mʊ- / *noun* [C]

mountain / ' mʌʊn.tɪn / / -t ə n / *noun* [C] (VERY LARGE HILL)

municipal / mju' nɪsɪ.p ə l / *adjective*

muse / mjuːz / *verb* [I] FORMAL

mute / mjuːt / *adjective*

mutual / ' mjuː.tʃu.əl / *adjective*

nail / neɪl / *noun* [C] (BODY PART)

nasal / ' neɪ.z ə l / *adjective*

neigh / neɪ / *noun* [C]

nephew / ' nef.juː / / ' nev- / *noun* [C]

nepotism / ' nep.ə.tɪ.z ə m / *noun* [U] DISAPPROVING

noise / nɔɪz / *noun* [C or U] (SOUND)

normal / ' nɔː.məl / / ' nɔːr- / *adjective*

north (ALSO **North**) / nɔːθ / / nɔːrθ / *noun* [U] (WRITTEN ABBREVIATION **N** , UK ALSO **Nth** , US ALSO **No.**)

notable / nəʊ.tə.bl / / nɒv.tə- / *adjective*

notary / 'nəʊ.tər.i / / nɒv.tər.i / *noun* [C] (ALSO **notary public**) LEGAL

numb / nʌm / *adjective*

nuptial / 'nʌp.ʃəl / *adjective* FORMAL

nylon / 'naɪ.lən / / -lən / *noun* [U] **obey** /

əʊ.be / / ə- / / oʊ- / *verb* **oblivious** /

ə'blɪv.i.əs / *adjective* **obsolete** / ,ɒb.sə'l'i:t / ,ɑːb- /

adjective **obstacle** / ɒb.st.əl / / ɑːb- / *noun* [C]

obstinate / 'ɒb.stɪ.nət / / 'ɑːb.stə- / *adjective*

occasion / ə'keɪ.ʒən / *noun* [C]

odd / ɒd / / ɑːd / *adjective* (STRANGE)

odour UK FORMAL (US **odor**) / əʊ.dəˈr / / 'uː.də / *noun* [C or U]

offend / ə'fend / *verb* [T] (UPSET)

OK (ALSO **okay**) / əʊ'ke / / oʊ- / *exclamation* (AGREEING) **olive**

/ 'ɒl.ɪv / / 'ɑː.lɪv / *noun* [C]

ominous / 'ɒm.i.nəs / / 'ɑ:.mə- / *adjective*

omnipotent / ɒmɪnɪp.ə.t̪ənt / / ʌmnp.ə.tənt / *adjective* FORMAL

onion / 'ʌn.jən / *noun* [C or U]

operative / ɒp.ə.r.ətɪv / / ʌ.pə.ətɪv / *noun* [C]

opponent / ə'pəʊ.nənt / / -'pəʊ- / *noun* [C] **opposite** /

ɒp.ə.zɪt / / ʌ.pə- / *adjective* (DIFFERENT)

oppress / ə'pres / *verb* [T often passive] (RULE) **orator**

/ ɒr.ə.tə' / / ɪr.ə.tə / *noun* [C]

oratory / ɒr.ə.t̪ə'ri / / ɪr.ə.t̪ər- / *noun* [U] FORMAL

orchard / ɔːtʃəd / / ɪr.tʃəd / *noun* [C]

ounce / aʊns / *noun*

Oxford / ɒks.fəd / / ʌks.fəd / *noun* [C] (ALSO **Oxford shoe**) US

panacea / ,pæn.ə'si:.ə / *noun* [C usually singular]

paradise / 'pær.ə.daɪs / / 'per- / *noun* [C usually singular , U]

parody / 'pær.ə.di / / 'per- / *noun*

particular / pə'tɪk.jʊ.lə' / / pə'tɪk.jə.lə / *noun*

patriotism / 'pæt.ri.ə.tɪ.z̩m / / 'peɪ.tri- / / 'peɪ.tri- / *noun* [U]

incredulous / n'kred.jʊ.ləs / *adjective*

peasant / 'pez.ənt / *noun* [C]

peculiar / prɪ'kju:.li.ə' / / -'kju:l.jə / *adjective* (STRANGE)

pedagogue / 'ped.ə.gɒg / / -gəg / *noun* [C]

pedagogy / 'ped.ə.gɒdʒ.i / / -gɑ:.dʒi / *noun* [U] SPECIALIZED

peel / pi:l / *verb* [T] (**FOOD**)

penal / 'pi:.nəl / *adjective* [before noun] (**PUNISHMENT**)

penalize (UK USUALLY **penalise**) / pi:.nə.laɪz / *verb* [T] (**CAUSE DISADVANTAGE**)

pendulum / 'pen.djʊ.ləm / -dʒə.ləm / *noun*

penicillin / pen.ə'sɪl.ɪn / *noun* [U] SPECIALIZED

pentagon / 'pen.tə.gən / -tə.gən / *noun* [C]

people / pi:pl / *noun* [plural]

pepper / 'pep.ə / -ə / *noun* [U] (**POWDER**)

perimeter / pə'rɪ.mɪ.tə / -rɪ.m.ə.tə / *noun* [C] **periodical**

/ pə.'rɪ.ɒd.ɪ.kəl / / pɪ.'rɪ.ə.d- / *noun* [C] **personnel** / pɜ:.sən'eɪ /

/ pɜ:- / *noun* [U, + sing/pl]

personal / 'pɜ:.sən.əl / / 'pɜ:.sən.əl / *adjective* **perspiration** /

pɜ:spə'reɪʃən / / pɜ:spə're- / *noun* [U] **perspire** / pə'spaɪə /

/ pə'spaɪə / *verb* [I] FORMAL

persuasion / pə'sweɪ.ʒən / / pə:- / *noun* [U] (**CHANGING IDEAS**)

philosophical / fɪl.ə'sɒf.ɪ.kəl / -'sɑ:.fɪ- / *adjective*

philosopher / fɪləs.ə.fə / -'lɑ:.sə.fə / *noun* [C] **physicality**

/ fɪzɪ'kæl.ə.ti / -ti / *noun* [U] LITERARY **pidgin** / 'pɪdʒɪn /

noun [C or U]

piety / 'paɪ.ə.ti / / 'pæ.ti / *noun* [U] (ALSO **piousness**) FORMAL

pint / paint / *noun* [C]

pixel / 'pɪk.səl / *noun* [C] SPECIALIZED

plague / pleɪɡ / *verb* [T]

platinum / 'plæt.ɪ.nəm / / 'plæt.nəm / *noun* [U] (SYMBOL **Pt**)

plough UK (US **plow**) / plaʊ / *noun* [C]

plume / plu:m / *noun*

predatory / 'pred.ə.t̪ə.ri / / -tɔːr- / *adjective*

predecessor / 'priː.dɪ.ses.ə / / 'pred.ə.ses.ə / *noun* [C]

pharynx / 'fær.ɪŋks / *noun* [C] (PLURAL **pharynges** / fær'ɪn.dʒiːz / or **pharynxes**)

philistine / 'flɪ.ɪ.stən / / -stɪn / *noun* [C] DISAPPROVING

plan / plæn / *noun* (**DECISION**)

pomegranate / 'pɒm.ɪ.græn.ɪt / / 'pɑːm.græn- / *noun* [C] **popular** /

'pɒp.jʊ.lə / / 'pɑː.pjə.lə / *adjective* (**LIKED**) **posh** / pɒʃ / / pɑːʃ /

adjective

potassium / pə'tæs.i.əm / *noun* [U] (SYMBOL **K**)

poverty / 'pɒv.ə.ti / / pɑː.və.ti / *noun* [U]

precious / 'preʃ.əs / *adjective* (**VALUABLE**)

precipice / 'pres.ɪ.pɪs / *noun* [C]

precise / pri'saɪs / / prə- / *adjective* (**EXACT**)

precocious / pri'kəʊ.ʃəs / / prə'kou- / *adjective* **preface** /

'pref.ɪs / *noun* [C]

prefer / prɪ'fɜː / / -fɜː / *verb* [T] (-rr-) (**CHOOSE**) **preferable** /

'pref.ə.r.ə.bl / / -ə.ə- / *adjective* **preference**

/ 'pref.ə.r.ə.ns / / -ə- / *noun* [C or U]

prelude / 'prel.ju:d / *noun* [C usually singular]

(INTRODUCTION) **preparation** / ,prep. ə'reɪʃən / / -ə're- / *noun*

(GETTING READY) **prepare** / ,prɪpeə / / -per / *verb* [I or T]

preposition / ,prep. ə'zɪʃən / *noun* [C]

prescribe / prɪ'skraɪb / *verb* [T often passive] (GIVE MEDICINE)

prescription / prɪ'skrɪpʃən / *noun* [C] (MEDICINE)

present / 'prez. ənt / *noun* [C] (UK INFORMAL **prezzie** , OR **pressie**) (SOMETHING GIVEN)

present / prɪ'zent / *verb* [T] (GIVE)

preservation / ,prez. ə'veɪʃən / / -ʒ- / *noun* [U]

preservative / ,prɪz.və.tɪv / / -zə.və.tɪv / *noun*

prestige / ,pres'ti:ʒ / *noun* [U]

prestigious / ,pres'tɪdʒ.əs / *adjective* **presupposition**

/ ,prɪ.sʌp.ə'zɪʃən / *noun* [C or U] **pretty** / 'prɪ.i / / prt- /

adverb INFORMAL **priority** / ,praɪrɪ.ti / / -rɪ.ti /

noun [C or U] **private** / 'praɪ.vət / *adjective*

(PERSONAL)

probable / 'prɒb.ə.bl / / 'pra.bə- / *adjective*

probability / ,prɒb.ə'bɪlɪ.ti / / pra.bəbl.ə.ti / *noun* [C or U]

procedure / ,prə'si.dʒə / / -dʒə / *noun* [C or U] (WAY TO PROCEED)

/ ,prə'si:d / / prəʊ- / *verb* [I]

proclamation / ,prɒk.lə'meɪʃən / / ,prɑ:.klə- / *noun* [C or U]

privacy / 'prɪv.ə.si / / 'praɪ.və- / *noun* [U]

produce / prə'dju:s / -'du:s / *verb* [T] (**MAKE**) **product** /
'prɒd.ʌkt / -'prɑ:.dʌkt / *noun* (**THING MADE**)

production / prə'dʌk.ʃən / *noun*

(**MAKING**) **proficient** / prə'fɪ.ʃənt /

adjective

profligate / 'prɒf.li.ɡət / -'prɑ:.flɪ- / *adjective* FORMAL **profound** /

prə'faʊnd / *adjective* (**EXTREME**) **prohibit** / prə'hɪb.ɪt
/ *verb*

prolong / prə'lɒŋ / -'lɑŋ / *verb* [T]

prolongation / ,prəʊ.lɒŋ'geɪ.ʃən / -'prɒʊ.lɑŋ- / *noun* [U]

promise / 'prɒm.ɪs / -'prɑ:.mɪs / *verb* [I or T] (**SAY**) **promote** / prə'məʊt

// -'mɒʊt / *verb* [T] (**ENCOURAGE**) **prophecy** / 'prɒf.ə.si//

'prɑ:.fə- / *noun*

prophecy / 'prɒf.ə.sə / -'prɑ:.fə- / *verb* [I or T]

proportion / prə'pɔ:ʃən / -'pɔ:ɪ- / *noun* (**AMOUNT**)

prospective / prə'spek.tɪv / *adjective*

prosperous / 'prɒs.pə'rəs / -'prɑ:.spə- / *adjective*

protocol / 'prəʊ.tə.kʊl / -'prɒʊ.tə.kʊl / *noun* [U] (**RULES**)

provide / prə'vaɪd / *verb* [T] (**SUPPLY**)

province / 'prɒv.ɪns / -'prɑ:.vɪns / *noun* (**REGION**) **provincial**

/prə'vɪn.ʃəl / *noun* [C] MAINLY DISAPPROVING **provision**

prə'vɪz.ən / *noun* (**SUPPLY**)

provoke / prə'veʊk / -'vɒʊk / *verb* [T] (**CAUSE REACTION**)

pseud(o)- / sjuː.dəʊ / / suː.doʊ / *prefix* DISAPPROVING

psychiatric / ,saɪ.ki'æt.rɪk / *adjective*

psychiatry / saɪ'kaɪə.tri / *noun* [U]

purchase / 'pɜː.tʃəs / / 'pɜː- / *noun* FORMAL (BUYING) **pure** / pjʊəˈr /

/ pjʊr / *adjective* (NOT MIXED) **purpose** / 'pɜː.pəs / /

'pɜː- / *noun*

rail / reɪl / *noun* (TRAINS)

rapport / ræ'pɔːr / / -'pɔːr / *noun* [S or U]

ratio / 'reɪʃi.əʊ / / -oʊ / *noun* [C] (PLURAL **ratios**)

reconcile / rek. ən.saɪ / *verb* [T]

record / rɪ'kɔːd / / -'kɔːd / *verb* [T] (STORE ELECTRONICALLY) **recruitment** /

rɪ'kruːt.mənt / *noun* [U]

reel / riəl / *noun* [C] (HOLDER)

reform / rɪ'fɔːm / / -'fɔːm / *verb* [I or T] **foe** / fəʊ / / foʊ / *noun* [C] LITERARY

refrigerator / rɪ'frɪdʒ. ər.e.təˈr / / -ə.e.tə / *noun* [C]

regime / reɪʒɪm / *noun* [C] (MANAGEMENT)

regular / 'reg.jʊ.ləˈr / / -lə / *adjective* (OFTEN)

regulate / 'reg.jʊ.leɪt / *verb* [T]

rejoin / ,riː'dʒɔɪn / *verb* [T] (RETURN) **release**

/rɪ'liːs / *verb* [T] (MAKE FREE)

relevant / 'rel.ə.v ə nt / *adjective*

relic / 'rel.ɪk / *noun* [C]

religion / rɪˈlɪdʒ. ə n / *noun*

remedial / rɪˈmiːdi.əl / *adjective* (TO IMPROVE)

renaissance / rəˈnei.s ə ns / / ˈren.ə.səns / *noun* [S]

renovate / ˈren.ə.veɪt / *verb* [T]

reply / rɪˈplaɪ / *verb* [I]

represent / ˌrep.rɪˈzent / *verb* (ACT FOR)

representation / ˌrep.rɪˈzen.teɪʃ ə n / *noun* [U] (ACTING FOR)

representative / ˌrep.rɪˈzen.tə.tɪv / / -tə.tɪv / *noun* [C]

reproduction / ˌriː.prəˈdʌk.f ə n / *noun* [U] (PRODUCING YOUNG)

reservoir / ˌrez.ə.vwɑːr / / -ə.vwɑːr / *noun* [C]

resignation / ˌrez.ɪˈneɪʃ ə n / *noun* [C or U]

resonance / ˈrez. ə n.əns / *noun* (SOUND)

resound / rɪˈzaʊnd / *verb* [I]

respiratory / rɪˈspɪr.ə.t ə r.i / / ˈres.pə.ə.tɔːr.i / *adjective* [before noun] FORMAL OR

restaurant / ˈres.trɒnt / / -tə.rɑːnt / *noun* [C]

restoration / ˌres.t ə ˈteɪʃ ə n / / -təˈre- / *noun* [C or U]

resume / rɪˈzjuːm / / -ˈzuːm / *verb* FORMAL

résumé / ˈrez.juː.meɪ / / ˈrez.ʊ- / *noun* [C]

retina / ˈret.i.nə / / ˈret. ə n.ə / *noun* [C] (PLURAL **retinas** or **retinae**)

revenge / rɪˈvendʒ / *noun* [U]

revere / rɪˈviə / / -ˈvɪr / *verb* [T] FORMAL **revolution** /

ˌrev.əˈluːʃ ə n / *noun* [C or U] (POLITICS) **rhetoric** / ˈret.

ə.tɪk / / ˌret.ə- / *noun* [U]

rhetorical / rɪ'tɒr.ɪ.kəl / / -tɒr.ɪ- / *adjective*

rhinoceros / raɪ'nɒs.əs / / -'nɑː.sə- / *noun* [C] (PLURAL **rhinoceros** or **rhinoceroses**)

ridiculous / rɪ'dɪk.jʊ.ləs / *adjective*

righteous / 'raɪ.tʃəs / *noun* [plural] FORMAL

robot / 'rəʊ.bɒt / / 'rəʊ.bɑ:t / *noun* [C] (**MACHINE**)

ruin / 'ruː.ɪn / *verb* [T]

Russian / 'rʌʃ.ən / *adjective*

sabotage / 'sæb.ə.taɪʒ / *verb* [T]

sacred / 'seɪ.krɪd / *adjective*

savage / 'sæv.ɪdʒ / *adjective*

scaffolding / 'skæf.əl.dɪŋ / *noun* [U]

scale / skeɪl / *noun* (**MEASURE**) **scissors**

/ 'sɪz.əz / / -əz / *noun* [plural] **screw** / skruː

/ *noun* (**METAL OBJECT**) **scythe** /saɪð /

noun [C]

secluded / sɪ'kluː.dɪd / *adjective*

secretary / 'sek.rə.tər.i / / -ter.i / *noun* [C] (**OFFICE**)

seizure / 'siːʒər / / -ʒər / *noun* [C or U] (**TAKING**)

seniority / sɪ'nɪər.ɪti / / sɪnjər.ə.ti / *noun* [U] (**LONG TIME**)

sensory / 'sen.sər.i / / -sə- / *adjective* [before noun] SPECIALIZED

separate / 'sep.ər.ət / / -ə- / *adjective*

sergeant / 'sɑ:dʒənt / / 'sɑr- / *noun* [C] (ALSO **Sergeant** , WRITTEN ABBREVIATION

Sgt ,

sew / səʊ / / soʊ / *verb* (**sewed** , **sewn** or **sewed**)

so / səʊ / / soʊ / *adverb* (**VERY**)

sow / səʊ / / soʊ / *verb* [I or T] (**sowed** , **sown** or **sowed**) (**PLANT**)

sewage / 'su:.ɪdʒ / *noun* [U]

sewerage / 'suə.rɪdʒ / / 'su:.ə.ɪdʒ / *noun* [U]

shampoo / ʃæm'pu / *noun* (PLURAL **shampoos**)

short / ʃɒt / / ʃɔrt / *adjective* (**DISTANCE**)

shortage / ʃɔ.tɪdʒ / / ʃr.tɪdʒ / *noun* [C] **shovel** /

ʃʌv. əl / *noun* [C]

showbiz / ʃəʊ.bɪz / / ʃəʊ- / *noun* [U] INFORMAL FOR show business

shrewd / ʃru:d / *adjective* APPROVING

sieve / sɪv / *noun* [C]

sincere / sɪn'sɪə^r / / -sɪr / *adjective*

singular / 'sɪŋ.gjʊ.lə^r / / -lə / *adjective*

(**GRAMMAR**)**slew** / slu: / *verb*

sniper / 'snaɪ.pə^r / / -pə / *noun* [C] (**SHOOT**)

sociolinguistics / ,səʊ.sɪ.əʊ.lɪŋ'ɡwɪs.tɪks / / ,soʊ.sɪ.oo- / *noun* [U] **sociology** /

,səʊ.sɪ'bl.ə.dʒi / / ,soʊ.sɪ'ɑ:lə- / *noun* [U] **soften** / 'sɒf. ən / / 'sɑ.f ən / *verb* [I or T

] (**LESS HARD**)**solace** / 'sɒl.ɪs / / 'sɑ.lɪs / *noun* [

S or U] LITERARY

solid / 'sɒl.ɪd / / 'sɑː.lɪd / *adjective* (**HARD**)

soliloquy / sə' lɪl.ə.kwi / *noun* [C] (PLURAL **soliloquies**) SPECIALIZED

sophisticate / sə' fɪs.tɪ.kət / *noun* [C] FORMAL

sort / sɔ:t / / sɔ:rt / *noun* (**TYPE**)

sour / saʊə^r / / saʊr / *adjective* (**TASTE**)

southerly / 'sʌð. ə.lɪ / / -ə.li / *adjective* a wind that comes from the south

southern (ALSO **Southern**) / sʌð.ən / / -ən / *adjective* (WRITTEN ABBREVIATION **S** US
ALSO **So**)

speciality / ,speʃ.i' æl.ɪ.ti / / -ə.ti / *noun* [C] UK (US **specialty**) (**PRODUCT**)

spectacle / 'spek.t.kl / *noun* [C] (**UNUSUAL EVENT**)

sphere / sfɪə^r / / sfɪr / *noun* [C] (**ROUND OBJECT**)

spinach / 'spɪn.ɪʃ / *noun* [U]

sporadic / spə' ræd.ɪk / *adjective*

cipher (ALSO **cypher**) / 'saɪ.fə^r / / -fə / *noun* [C or U] SPECIALIZED

(**SECRET LANGUAGE**)

square / skweə^r / / skwer / *noun* [C] (**SHAPE**)

squeal / skwi:l / *verb* [I]

squeeze / skwi:z / *verb* (**PRESS TOGETHER**)

squirrel / 'skwɪr. əl / / 'skwɜ:- / *noun* [C]

consistency / kən' sɪs.t ə.n.sɪ / *noun* [U] (**BEING THE
SAME**) **stale** / steɪl / *adjective*

stamp / stæmp / *noun* [C] (**LETTER**)

statistic / stə'tɪs.tɪk / *noun*

stenographer / stə'nɒɡ.rə.fə^r / / -'nɑ:..grə.fə / *noun* [C] (US INFORMAL ALSO **steno**)

photographer / fə'tɒɡ.rə.fə^r / / -'tɑ:..grə.fə / *noun* [C]

stimulate / 'stim.jʊ.leɪt / *verb*

stipend / 'staɪ.pend / *noun* [C]

storm / stɔ:m / / stɔ:rm / *noun* [C] (**VIOLENT WEATHER**)

studious / 'stju:..di.əs / / 'stu:- / *adjective* (**LEARNING**)

subordinate / sə'bɔ:..dɪ.nət / / -'bɔ:r- / *adjective*

suffice / sə'faɪs / *verb* [I] FORMAL

suffocate / 'sʌf.ə.keɪt / *verb* [I or T] (**DIE**)

suggest / sə'dʒest / *verb* [T] (**MENTION**)

suicide / 'su:ɪ.saɪd / *noun* [C or U] (**DEATH**) suite

/ swɪ:t / *noun* [C] (**SET OF ROOMS**)

superlative / su'pɜ:l.ə.tɪv / / -pɜ:l.ə.tɪv / *noun* [C]

surface / 'sɜ:..fɪs / / 'sɜ:- / *noun* (**TOP**)

sweater / 'swet.ə^r / / swet.ə / *noun* [C] (UK ALSO **jumper**)

syllable / sl.ə.bl / *noun* [C]

syllabus / 'sɪl.ə.bəs / *noun* [C] (PLURAL **syllabuses** or **syllabi**)

sympathy / 'sɪm.pə.θi / *noun* (**UNDERSTANDING**)

synonym / 'sɪn.ə.nɪm / *noun* [C]

syringe / sɪˈrɪndʒ / *noun* [C]

tail / teɪl / *noun* [C] (ANIMAL)

taxonomy / tækˈsɒn.ə.mi / -ˈsɑː.nə- / *noun* [C or U] SPECIALIZED **tear** / teəˈ /

verb [I or T] (**tore** , **torn**) (PULL APART) **tear** / teəˈ

// *verb* [I or T] (**tore** , **torn**) (PULL APART)

technological / ˌtek.nəˈlɒdʒ.i.kəl / -ˈlɑː.dʒi- / *adjective*

tedious / ˈtiː.di.əs / *adjective*

tenure / ˈten.jəˈ / -jʊəˈ / -jə- / -jʊr / *noun* [U] FORMAL

TESOL / ˈtiː.səl / -sɑːl / *noun* [U]

testimony / ˈtes.tɪ.məˈni / -moʊ.ni / *noun* [C or U] FORMAL

theater / ˈθə.təˈ / / θi.ə.tə / *noun* [C]

thigh / θa / *noun* [C]

thin / θɪn / *adjective* (**thinner** , **thinnest**) (NOT THICK)

thorn / θɔːn / / θɔːrən / *noun* [C]

Thursday / ˈθz.de / / ˈθz- / *noun* [C or U] (WRITTEN ABBREVIATION **Thur.** ,

Thurs.)

tidy / ˈtaɪ.di / *adjective* (ORDERED) **tin**

/ tɪn / *noun* [U] (METAL) **tobacco** /

təˈbæk.əv / / -oʊ / *noun* [U] **toddler** /

ˈtɒd.ləˈ / / ˈtɑːd.lə / *noun* [C] **toe** / təʊ / / too /

noun [C]

tow / təʊ / / təʊ / *verb* [T]

together / tə'geð.ə / / -ə / *adverb* (WITHEACHOTHER)

toilet / 'tɔɪ.lət / *noun* (CONTAINER)

toll / təʊl / / təʊl / *noun* (CHARGE)

tomato / tə'mɑːtəʊ / / -meɪ.təʊ / *noun* [C or U] (PLURAL **tomatoes**)

tone / təʊn / / təʊn / *noun* (VOICE EXPRESSION)

tooth / tuːθ / *noun* [C] (PLURAL **teeth**) (MOUTH)

torch / tɔːʃ / / tɔːʃ / *noun*

tortoise / 'tɔːtəs / / tɔːtəs / *noun* [C]

torture / 'tɔːtʃə / / tɔːtʃə / *noun*

towards / tə'wɔːdz / / tə'wɔːrdz / *preposition* MAINLY UK (MAINLY US **toward**)
(MOVEMENT)

inward / 'ɪn.wəd / / -wəd / *adjective* (INSIDE)

forward / 'fɔː.wəd / / 'fɔːr.wəd / *adverb* (ALSO **forwards**) (DIRECTION)

outward / 'aʊt.wəd / / -wəd / *adjective* [before noun] (ON OUTSIDE)

trail / treɪl / *noun* (PATH)

transfer / træn'sfɜː / / 'træns.fɜː / *verb* (-rr-)

transcription / træn'skrɪp.ʃən / *noun*

transaction / træn'zæk.ʃən / *noun* [C or U]

transform /træns'fɔ:m/ / -'fɔ:rm/ *verb* [T] **transient**

/ 'træn.zi.ənt / / -'ʒ nt / *adjective* FORMAL **treatise** /

'tri.ts / / -ts / *noun* [C]

persuade / pə'sweɪd / / pə- / *verb* [T]

persuasion / pə'sweɪ.ʒən / / pə- / *noun* [U] (CHANGING IDEAS)

persuasive / pə'sweɪ.sɪv / / pə- / *adjective*

trigger / 'trɪg.ə / / -ə / *noun* [C usually singular]

(START) **trinity** / 'trɪ.nɪ.ti / *noun* [C usually singular]

LITERARY **triumph** / 'traɪ.əmf / *noun* [C or U]

tuition / tju:.'ən / / tɪ- / *noun* [U]

twilight / 'twɑɪ.laɪt / *noun* [U] (EVENING)

tyranny / tr.'ən.i / *noun* [U] **ultimately**

/ 'ʌl.tɪ.mət.li / / -tə- / *adverb* **unanimous** /

ju:'næn.i.məs / *adjective* **fasten** / 'fæs.ən / /

'fæs.ən / *verb*

uniform / 'ju:nɪ.fɔ:m / / -fɔ:rm / *noun* [C or U] **unit** / 'ju:nɪt

/ *noun* (SEPARATE PART) **urinate** /

'jʊə.rɪ.net / / 'jʊr.i- / *verb* [I]

urination / jʊə.rɪ'neɪ.ʃən / / 'jʊr.i- / *noun* [U]

urine / 'jʊə.rɪn / / 'jʊr.ɪn / *noun* [U]

use / ju:z / *verb* [T] (used , used) (PURPOSE)

used / ju:st / *verb*

used / ju:zd / *adjective* (NOT NEW)

useful /'ju:s.fʊl/ *adjective*

useless /'ju:s.ləs/ *adjective*

utility /ju:'tɪl.ɪ.ti / / -ə.ti / *noun* [C] FORMAL

(SERVICE) vacancy /'veɪ.k ə n.si / *noun* [C]

vaporize (UK USUALLY **vaporise**) /'veɪ.p ə r.aɪ / / -pə.aɪ / *verb* [I or T]

vegetable /'vedʒ.tə.bl / *noun* [C] (US INFORMAL **veggie**) **(FOOD) vehicle** /

'vi:kl / *noun* [C] FORMAL **(MACHINE)**

veil /veɪl / *noun* **(MATERIAL)**

Venus /'vi:.nəs / *noun* [S]

use /ju:z / *verb* [T] (**used , used**) **(PURPOSE)**

village /'vɪl.ɪdʒ / *noun*

visage /'vɪz.ɪdʒ / *noun* [C] LITERARY the face

visit /'vɪz.ɪt / *verb*

vitamin /'vɪ.tə.mɪn / / vɑ:.tə- / *noun* [C] **vocabulary** /

və'kæb.jʊ.l ə r.i / / vʊ'kæb.jə.lər- / **volatile** /'vɒl.ə.taɪ /

/ 'vʌ.lə.t ə l / *adjective*

voucher /'vaʊ.tʃə ʀ / / -tʃə / *noun* [C] UK

war / wɔ ʀ / / wɔɪ / *noun* [C or U]

ward / wɔ:d / / wɔ:rd / *noun* [C] **(HOSPITAL/PRISON)**

warden / 'wɔ:.d ə n / / 'wɔɪ- / *noun* [C] **(MANAGER) warm**

/ wɔ:m / / wɔ:rm / *adjective* **(TEMPERATURE)**

warmth / wɔ:mθ / / wɔ:rmθ / *noun* [U

warn / wɔ:n / / wɔ:rn / *verb* [I or T] **wart** /

wɔ:t / / wɔ:rt / *noun* [C]

whore / hɔ:ˈr / / hɔ:r / *noun* [C]

wicked /ˈwɪk.ɪd/ *adjective* (BAD)

wound / wu:nd / *noun* [C] (INJURY)

wounded / ˈwu:n.dɪd / *adjective* (UPSET)

zebra / ˈzeb.rə / / ˈzi:.brə / *noun* [C] (PLURAL **zebras** or **zebra**)

prophecy / ˈprɒf.ə.sa/ / ˈprɒ:.fə- / *verb* [I or T]

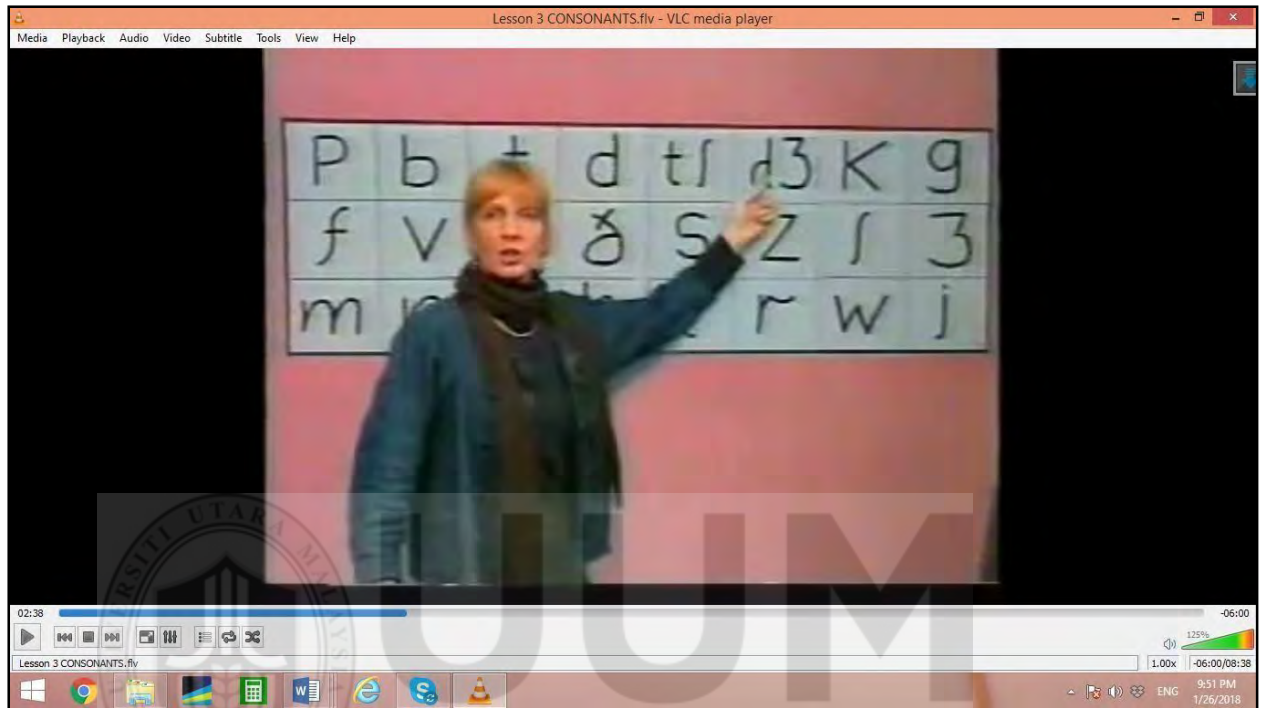


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Appendix I

Screenshots of Videos Teaching Vowels and Consonants





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Appendix J

The List of the Phrases and Sentences for the Practice of Group B

- 1 The blotted handkerchief.
- 2 The big university.
- 3 A tough schedule.
- 4 Pronunciation coach.
- 5 My personal stapler.
- 6 An army coup.
- 7 The reigning monarch.
- 8 Playing a decisive part.
- 9 The close associate of the Minister.
- 10 My assumption about the weather.
- 11 One of the Prime Minister's most trusted Lieutenant.
- 12 Taken aback by surprise.
- 13 Solving with abacus.
- 14 The abandoned child.
- 15 SKU; the abbreviation for Stock Keeping Unit.
- 16 Pain in the abdomen.
- 17 Abhorring racism with all might.
- 18 The patient's abnormal behavior.
- 19 Walking abreast.
- 20 Going abroad.
- 21 His mysterious absence.
- 22 The absurd allegations.
- 23 My excellent academic record.
- 24 Aching head.
- 25 His 12000 acres in Yorkshire.
- 26 The new African accent.
- 27 An advertising agency.
- 28 Her agile mind.

- 29 12 years ago.
- 30 Agreeing with his opinion.
- 31 The road ahead of you.
- 32 An alien culture.
- 33 Allergy to dust.
- 34 The allopathic treatment.
- 35 Bouts of depression alternate with periods of elation Pronunciation.
- 36 A bourgeois family.
- 37 A room floored in brown wood.
- 38 The blooming flower in the garden.
- 39 Anxious t avoid any trouble.
- 40 Some twenty feet apart.
- 41 Her spacious apartment.
- 42 The apex of the roof.
- 43 Using apostrophes.
- 44 Appealing for information about the incident.
- 45 A healthy appetite.
- 46 A red big apple.
- 47 Applying to the local authority for grant.
- 48 An opposite quotation.
- 49 The apposition of cat and dog.
- 50 Appreciating the beauty of nature.
- 51 Smiling in appreciation.
- 52 The apprehended issue.
- 53 Apricot jam.
- 54 The month of April.
- 55 A striped butcher's apron.
- 56 In the lands of Arab.
- 57 My Arabian friend.
- 58 Her fluent Arabic.
- 59 A stone arch, built at the entrance.

- 60 Egyptian archeological knowledge.
61 The archeologist born in Nashville.
62 His arid years in Suburbia.
63 Members of the aristocracy.
64 A decadent old blue-blooded aristocrat
65 The laws of arithmetic.
66 What arrant nonsense
67 The arrogant maid who works for us.
68 In the outskirts of Asia.
69 Our Asian culture.
70 The horrific aspect of my life.
71 Needs and aspirations of the people.
72 His aspiring for high status.
73 A secret assignation in town.
74 A homework assignment.
75 Assimilating this week's events.
76 The Association of Probation Officers.
77 He assumed full responsibility of all organizational works
78 His worsening asthma.
79 The Astronomy class in my college.
80 The centaur's astronomical observations.
81 The committed atheist.
82 The broad-shouldered natural athlete.
83 My attaché case fell off the shelf.
84 The special of attorney.
85 The use of an attributive adjective.
86 He whistled at the audacity of the plan.
87 The auditory nerves.
88 The sultry haze of late August.
89 My paternal aunt.
90 The fat auntie in the bus.

- 91 He was respectable to his auspicious customers.
- 92 The authenticity of his documents was dubious.
- 93 The government authorized further aircraft production.
- 94 The signed authorization papers.
- 95 The book is a curious mixture of autobiography and fantasy.
- 96 A boss who shifts between autocracy and consultation.
- 97 The absolute power off autocrat.
- 98 The automobile ran past me.
- 99 The auxiliary airport staff.
- 100 The avenge for his brother's death.
- 101 Avoid from the sun light.
- 102 The company's annual award for high-quality service.
- 103 The look of utter awe on her face.
- 104 One of the country's most eligible bachelors.
- 105 The bargains between political parties for supporting the government.
- 106 The grain of barley.
- 107 The barrage across the River Usk.
- 108 He was bearing a tray of brimming glasses.
- 109 Before the attacks began.
- 110 Behind the bars.
- 111 A beneficent democracy.
- 112 A benevolent fund.
- 113 They beseeched the man to stay.
- 114 The border between Mexico and US.
- 115 The beverage of milk.
- 116 The bias against black applicants.
- 117 My broken bicycle.
- 118 The offence of bigamy.
- 119 A binocular microscope.
- 120 The individual biographies of both criminals are alike.
- 121 The chocolate biscuit.

- 122 The detained charges of blasphemy.
123 The dark blue sky.
124 The boiled water for drinking.
125 A bomb attack.
126 Her silver bonnet.
127 The northern border of our country.
128 The German-born philosopher.
129 Scientists rarely bother with such niceties.
130 His bottle of wine.
131 Apple boughs laden with blossoms.
132 A girl with long hair tied back in a bow.
133 Fast bowling.
134 The new brand of soap powder.
135 A breakfast of bacon and eggs.
136 Gasping for breath.
137 Breathing deeply.
138 This beer is brewed in Frankfurt.
139 A broad staircase.
140 He wiped his brow.
141 A shaving brush.
142 The message helped to buffer the strain.
143 A golf buggy.
144 The bugle sounded the charge.
145 A bunch of grapes.
146 A news bureau.
147 The unnecessary bureaucracy in local government.
148 The buzz of the bees.
149 Bypass the farm and continue to the road.
150 He is not my caliber.
151 Mange is full of calcium.
152 Hydroxide is a chemical compound.

- 153 Eleven Candidate.
- 154 Capacitor is an electrical device.
- 155 His mental capacity is very low.
- 156 The \$300 million palace was built to satisfy the caprice of one man.
- 157 He was a cruel and capricious tyrant.
- 158 A gypsy caravan.
- 159 Judith is very career -minded/-oriented (= gives a lot of attention to her job).
- 160 Over the years he's become a grotesque caricature of himself.
- 161 Seven hundred causality.
- 162 A cavernous 4,000-seat theatre.
- 163 Workplace nurseries will cease to be liable for tax.
- 164 Ministers were censured for their lack of decisiveness during the crisis.
- 165 A wedding/graduation ceremony.
- 166 She has a Certificate in Drama Education.
- 167 We muddled up the name labels and chaos ensued.
- 168 She travelled by chariot.
- 169 She was chasing (after) a man who had snatched her bag.
- 170 There's a shortage of cheap housing in the region.
- 171 18th century was the age of chivalry.
- 172 I took her a box of chocolates.
- 173 He died due to cholera.
- 174 He was well known for his work in the cinema.
- 175 If you have no children, enter a cipher in the space on the form.
- 176 The two vans collided at the crossroads.
- 177 It was predicted that a comet would collide with one of the planets.
- 178 Colloquial speech is mandatory in every thesis writing.
- 179 An artists' colony.
- 180 A nudist colony.
- 181 Usually comb is made of plastic.
- 182 Now you can watch the latest films in the comfort of your own room.
- 183 He was sent to prison for a crime that he didn't commit.

- 184 A comfortable bed/sofa.
- 185 Compass is used in arithmetic.
- 186 I was hoping she might show a little compassion.
- 187 Are their two blood groups compatible?
- 188 A smooth, dry surface helps the tiles adhere to the wall.
- 189 The factory supplies electrical components for cars.
- 190 The government has said that there will be no compromise with terrorists.
- 191 The conceit of that man is incredible!
- 192 I found the conclusion of the film rather irritating.
- 193 In an instant, the magician had conjured (up) a dove from his hat.
- 194 The costs of cleaning up the bay are estimated, conservatively, at \$1 billion.
- 195 It wasn't very considerate of you to drink all the milk.
- 196 I think there was a conspiracy to keep me out of the committee.
- 197 Constable is a British police officer of the lowest rank.
- 198 He consumes vast quantities of chips with every meal.
- 199 Recent evidence has tended to contradict established theories on this subject.
- 200 There was a big controversy surrounding/over the use of drugs in athletics.
- 201 The policy has caused fierce/heated controversy ever since it was introduced.
- 202 A horse-drawn/public conveyance.
- 203 Shall we all drive to the party in convoy so we don't get lost?
- 204 I've asked them not to play their music so loudly, but they're not being very cooperative.
- 205 Coordinate with your peers.
- 206 Relations between the two leaders are said to be cordial.
- 207 Niazi express couch.
- 208 This watch may be a counterfeit, but it looks just like the original.
- 209 It was a courageous decision to resign in protest at the company's pollution record.
- 210 Did you put the car in the garage?
- 211 This year (a) severe drought has ruined the crops.
- 212 You mustn't exceed the recommended dosage.
- 213 What was the diagnosis?

- 214 The country's leadership is in crisis.
- 215 It was a courageous decision.
- 216 Relations between the two leaders are said to be cordial.
- 217 A convoy of trucks containing supplies was sent to the famine area.
- 218 There was a big controversy.
- 219 Our present population to consume 25 percent of the world's oil.
- 220 The magician had conjured (up) a dove from his hat.
- 221 The conceit of that man is incredible.
- 222 A compromise will be reached in today's talks.
- 223 The tiles adhere to the wall.
- 224 A crime that he didn't commit.
- 225 Enter a cipher in the space on the form.
- 226 He died from multiple stab wounds.
- 227 He shook my hand warmly.
- 228 A volatile liquid or solid.
- 229 Teacher gives us a list of vocabulary.
- 230 Oranges are full of vitamin C.
- 231 Tractors are farm vehicles.
- 232 fruit and vegetables
- 233 It is useless to speculate without more information.
- 234 Do the exercises serve any useful purpose?
- 235 I love a man in uniform!
- 236 A remarkable triumph.
- 237 Monitor the transaction.
- 238 Do not forget to flush the toilet.
- 239 My flatmate isn't very tidy.
- 240 See picture thorn.
- 241 The words 'small' and 'little' are synonyms.
- 242 Which novels are on the syllabus this year?
- 243 I suggest a white cloth.
- 244 They are still clearing up the storm damage.

245 These plums are a bit sour.

246 A person who is sophisticated.



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Appendix K

Pronunciation Survey Questionnaire for Group A

Pronunciation Survey Questionnaire for Group A

	Please tick the relevant box. Not at all=1. Slightly=2. Slightly moderate=3. Moderately=4. Extremely= 5	Not at all	Slightly	Slightly Moderate	Moderately	Extremely
1	Did you know the phonemes before this course?					
2	Did you know the sounds of the Alphabet of English before this course?					
3	Did you know the symbols of the sounds before this course?					
4	Did you know about word stress, liaison, assimilation and elision before this course?					
5	How much are you confident to pronounce correctly the problematic words you have studied?					
6	Do you think learning by yourselves was a good idea?					
7	Did the use of the digital dictionary help you in performing correct pronunciation?					
8	Were the videos helpful in teaching the sounds of English Alphabet?					
9	Was the connection between sounds and the letters an effective method?					
10	Was the course interesting?					
11	Was the course easy?					
12	Were the rules to learn sounds of alphabet adequate to help you?					
13	Were the instructions regarding word stress, liaison, assimilation and elision enough?					
14	Would you like to attend this kind of course in future?					
15	Do you think this course should be an integral part of English syllabus?					
16	Do you think that this course should be an integral part of examinations					

Appendix L

Pronunciation Survey Questionnaire for Group B

Pronunciation Survey Questionnaire for Group B

	Please tick the relevant box. Not at all=1. Slightly=2. Slightly moderate=3. Moderately=4. Extremely= 5	Not at	Slightly	Moderately	Slightly	Moderately	Extremely
1	Do you know the phonemes of English?						
2	Do you know the sounds of the Alphabet of English?						
3	Do you know the symbols of the sounds?						
4	Do you know about word stress, liaison, assimilation and elision?						
5	How much are you confident to pronounce correctly the problematic words you have studied?						
6	Do you think learning by practice was a good idea?						
7	Did the use of the digital dictionary help you in performing correct pronunciation?						
8	Was the listening practice was enough to help in improving your speaking?						
9	Was the speaking practice was enough to help in improving your speaking?						
10	Was the course interesting?						
11	Was the course easy?						
12	Were the discussions were helpful in improving your speaking?						
13	Were all the practices were helpful in increasing knowledge about word stress, liaison, assimilation and elision?						
14	Would you like to attend this kind of course in future?						
15	Do you think this course should be an integral part of English syllabus?						
16	Do you think that this course should be an integral part of examinations						